This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

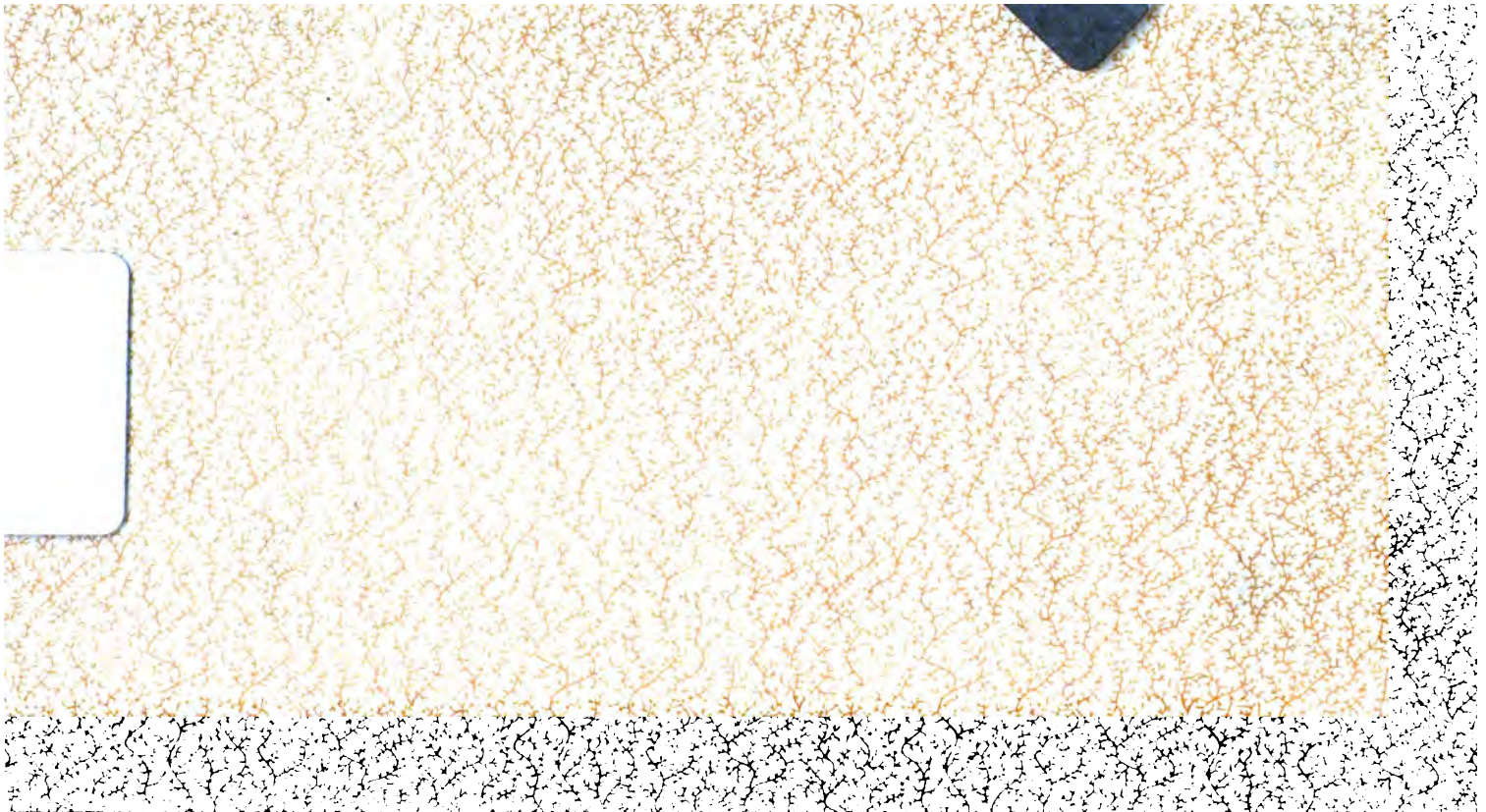
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

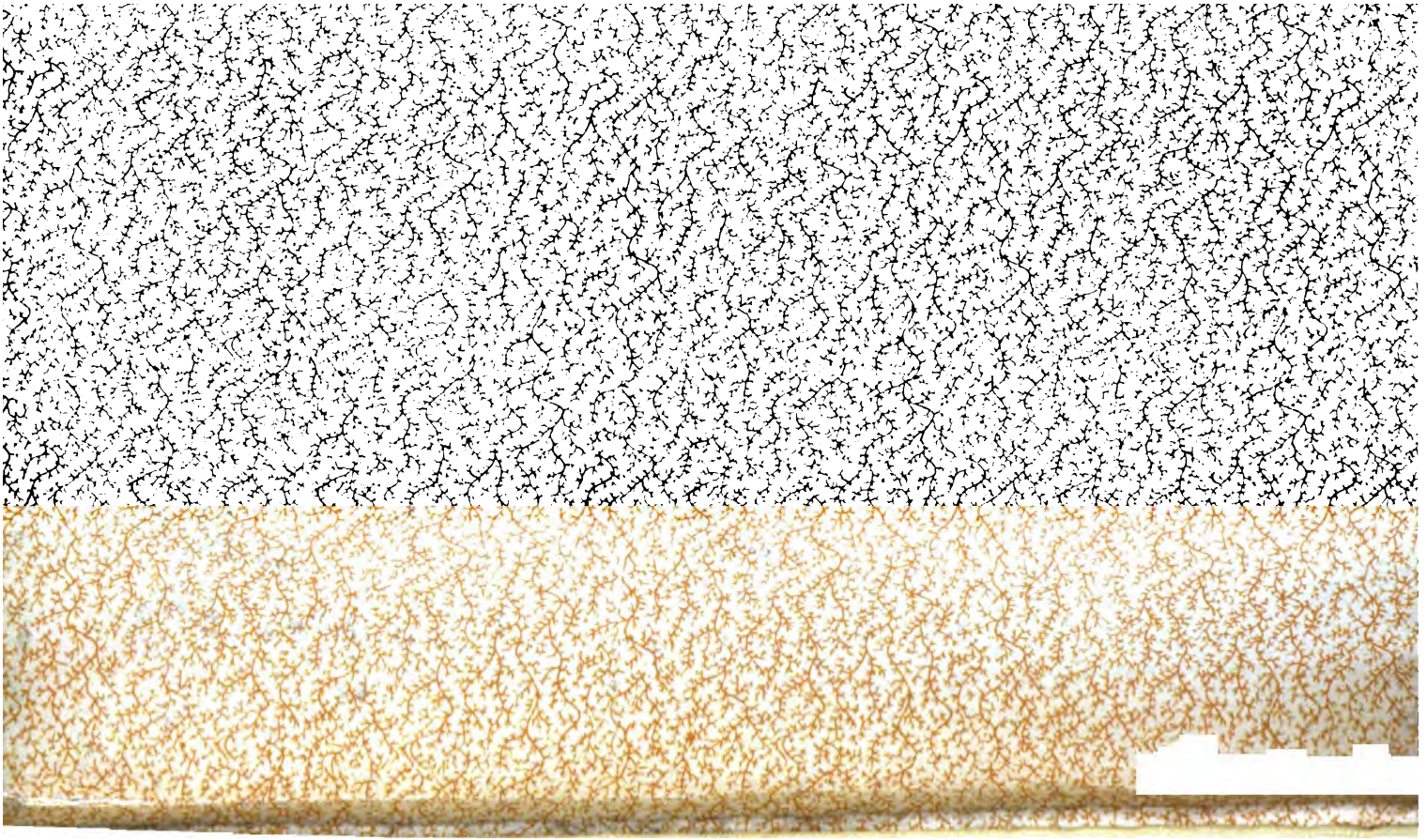
+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`





THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M, DCCC, III.

With an APPENDIX.

" *Quo nos cunque feret* SIMILIS *fortuna* PARENTI,
Ibimus, O Socii Comitesque.
Nil desperandum — auspice Teucro;
Certus enim promisit Apollo." HORAT. Carm. I. 7.

VOLUME XLII.

LIBRARY
NEW-YORK.

Printed by A. Strahan, Printers-Street;

And sold by T. BECKET, Bookseller, in Pall Mall.

M, DCCC, III.

NEW YORK
PUBLIC
LIBRARY

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ADDINGTON, Mr., Letter to, Page 205
Address to the Inhabitants of Britain, 311
———, Friendly, to Volunteers, 208
——— to the Public, *ib.*
——— to the British Nation, 325
Agriculture, Board of, Speech at, 200
———, Letters and Papers on, abridged, 212
Aikin's Translation of Zschokke's History of the Invasion of Switzerland, 424
Algerine Captive, 86
Alphabet illustrated, 469
America, Travels in, 77
Andrews's Sermon, 335
Animal Biography, 178
Answer to Remarks on Parties, 209
Appeal from the Passions to the Sense of the Country, 104
——— to Public Confidence, *ib.*
——— to Public Spirit, 105
——— to the People, 206
Armstrong's Fast Sermon, 331
Army, French, of the East, Medical History of, 492
Atlas, Circular, 317
———, Universal, 318

B

Baert's Picture of Great Britain, 502
Bates's Rural Philosophy, 82
Bath Society, their Papers abridged, 222
Baudry des Lozieres—Second Voyage to Louisiana, 479
Bayley's Poems, 257

Beauties of England, Vol. III. 110
Bell's Engravings of the Nerves, 94
Beneficence, Verses on, 99
Bibliographical Dictionary, 219
Bingley's Animal Biography, 178
Black's Lectures on Chemistry, 187
Blagdon on the Grand Contest, 105
Bloomfield's (Robert) Rural Tales, &c. 215
———'s (Nathaniel) Essay on War, 378
Bonaparte, Heroic Epistle to, 444
Borders, Minstrelsy of, 21
Britton and Brayley—Beauties of England, &c. Vol. III. 110
Brochant's Treatise on Mineralogy, 463
Bulkley's Sermon, 333
Buonaparte in the West Indies, 204
——— Heroic Epistle to, 444
Burdon's Advice to the Lower Ranks, 208
Burney's History of Discoveries in the South Sea, 414
Butler's Letter to an Irish Catholic, 105

C

Cambridgeshire, Elections for, Reflections on, 109
Carminum macaronicorum delectus, Fascic. II. 100
Carrington, Lord, his Speech, 200
Carthage and England, Rome and France, parallel between, examined, 442
Catholic, Irish, Letter to, 105
Ceylon, Account of, 113. 243
Chafey's Sermon, 334
Chatterton's Works. 110
Chemistry, Lectures on, 187
Chevalier Demolle on Wetnursing, 495
Chichester Library Society, Discourses to, 220
Christianity, Doctrines of, Account of, 219
Clare on Fluids, 203
Clarke's Address to the People of Ireland, 107
Collins's (Col.) Account of New South Wales, Vol. II. 1
——— (Mr.) Guide to Parents 219
Colquhoun on the Functions of a Constable, 98
Confidence, Public, Appeal to, 104
Constable, Functions of, 98
Contest considered, 105
Cooke's Circular Atlas, 317
Coote's History of the Union with Ireland, 200
Correspondence between the King, Prince of Wales, &c. 443
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112, 224, 336, 447—448
Couper's Tourifications of Malachi Meldrum, 131
Cowpock Institution, Report on, 212
Cowpox, Arguments on, 94
Crisis, Reflections on, 102
Croft's Sermon, 333
Crombie's Etymology, 218

D

Danger of Invasion, 103
Debt, Imprisonment for, View of, 97
Demonstration of the Longitude, 204
Derangement, Mental, Treatise on, 526
Desgenettes's Medical History of the Expedition, 392
Dreve's Sermon, 334
Durnford and Elsom—Tenth Reports, 99

E

Earth, Systems of, compared, 285. 294
Eastern Reports, 97
———'s Tolm Reports, 99
Economy, Political, Treatise on, 514
Edinburgh, Royal Society of, their Transactions, Vol. V. Part II. 296
Egypt, Fossils in, 193
Ellis's Specimens of Early English Poets, 155
Essay on Influenza, 210
Etymology and Syntax, 218
Evans's Fast Sermon, 332
Evidence, Rules of, 96
——— of Relation between our present Existence and a Future State, 320
Exhortations from the French in England to the French in France, 439

F

Facts and Observations on Sheep, &c. 166
Fast, Exhortation to observe, 319
Fawcett's War Elegies, 173
Findlater on the Agriculture of Peebles, 65
Fishery. See *Fraser*. See *Wheately*.
Flora Cantabrigiensis, *Edit. Alt.* 437
Fluids, Treatise on, 203
Food, Animal, Essay on, 40

Foot's

Foot's Cases of Practice of *Vesicæ Læsæ*, 95
Footsteps of Blood, 108
Ford's Sermon, 334
Four Heroic Epistles of Ovid, 329
Fragments, 33
France and Russia, Sketches relative to, 306
Fraser's Letter to the Speaker, 54
Fact, British, Synopsis of, 15
Future State, Evidence of Relation between it and our present Existence, 320

G

Gardiner's Sermons, 163
———'s Fast Sermon, 330
Germany, Tour through, 142
Glasgow, a Poem, 326
Glasse's Sermon, 224
Grant's Fast Sermon, 331
Great Britain, Picture of, 501
Guide to Parents, 219
Gutch's Sermon, 333
Guthrie's (Mrs.) Tour through the Taurida, 225

H

Hall's Fast Sermon, 445
—— (Dr.) Edition of Clare on Fluxes, 203
Hands's Solicitor's Practice, 96
Hassenfratz on Celestial Physics, 542
Heineken's Fast Sermon, 338
Hernia, Crural, Observations on, 213
Hood's Elements of War, 201
Horace, Lyrics of, translated, 127
Hughes's Sermon, 332
Huttonian Theory of the Earth illustrated and compared, 285. 294

I and J

Jervis's Fast Sermon, 447
Improvement, National, Plan of, 381
Influenza, Essay on, 210
Information of Events in Switzerland, 544
Ingram's Sermon, 334
Inhabitants, Plan for removing, 106
Invasion, Thoughts on, 103
———, Danger of, *ib.*
——— defeated, 106
———, Reflections on, 439
Jobs and Dame, 102
Johnstone on the Discovery of Mineral Acid Vapour, 211
Journals, Public, Spirit of, Vols V. VI. 222
Joyce's Sermon, 335
Ireland, Address to the People of, 107
———, Union with. See *Coote*.
———, Fishery of. See *Whately*.

K

King's Morsels of Criticism, Part II. 357
——'s Monimenta Antiqua, Vol. II. 364
——'s (John) Exhortation from the French, &c. 439

L

Landaff, Bishop of, his *intended* Speech, 442
Letter to Mr. Addington, on Loans, 205
Letters and Papers on Agriculture, abridged, 222
Lettice on removing Inhabitants, 106
———'s Fast Sermon, 330
Lettsom's Address to Parents, 94
Liliaceæ, 511
Linné's *Systema Naturæ* translated, 374
Loans, Letter on, 205
Longitude, Demonstration of, 204
Loss of Power, Commerce, and Liberty, 207
Louisiana, Second Voyage to, 479
Lower Ranks, Advice to, 208
Lozieres. See *Baudry*.
Luigi XVI. nascita, &c. di, 109
Luscombe's Sermon, 334
Lynn's Fast Sermon, 332
Lyrics of Horace, translated, 127

M

Macaronics, Selection of, 100
Macnally's Rules of Evidence, 96
Madan's Fast Sermon, 330
Mallet's History of the Swiss, 449
Malta, Importance of, 196
Malthus on the Principle of Population, 337
Marchand's Voyage round the World, 202
Marsh's Appeal to Public Spirit, 105
Martin's Letter to Lord Pelham, 108
Mayne's Glasgow, a Poem, 326

Medical Guide, 210
Medicine, Expectant, 539
Meldrum, Malachi, Tourifications of, 131
Mineralogy, Treatise on, 463
Minerals, British, Specimens of, 436
Minstrelsy of the Borders, 21
Minto, Lord, his Speech, 322
Monro on Crural Hernia, 213
Moore's (T. M.) Appeal to Public Confidence, 104
——'s (C.) Sermon, 333
Morsels of Criticism, Part II. 357
Mousaud's Alphabet illustrated, 469
Muniments Antiqua, Vol. II. 364

N

Narrative of the Election for Norfolk, 99
Nascita, &c. di Luigi XVI. 109
Nerves, Engravings of, 94
Non-Military Journal, 193
Norfolk Election, Narrative of, 99

O

Oberon, a Mask, 432
Observations on the Near Observer, 440
——— occasioned by the Remarks of a Near Observer, 443
——— on Why do we go to War? 443
Overton's Sermon, 224
Ovid, four Heroic Epistles of, 329

P

Painters, Lives of, 109
Paley's Philosophy, Annotations on, 255
——'s Natural Theology, 262
Parallel between England and Carthage, &c. 442
Parents, Guide to, 219
Parties, Remarks on, Tracts relative to that Pamphlet, 209. 440. 443
Passions, Appeal from, 104
Patterson's Address to Volunteers 208
Pearson on Paley's Philosophy, 255
———'s Exhortation to observe the Fast, 319
Peebles, Agriculture of, 65
Pelham, Lord, Letter to, 108
Percival's Account of Ceylon, 113. 243
Philipps's Fast Sermon, 331
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Part I. for 1803, 394
Physics, Celestial, Course of, 542
Pinel on Mental Derangement, 526
Plan of National Improvement, 381
Playfair on the Huttonian Theory of the Earth, 285
Poems. See *Warren, Ellis, Bayley, Fawcett, Bloomfield, Mayne, Sotheby*.
Poets, English. See *Ellis*.
Poggio Bracciolini, Life of, 45
Police, Parochial, Regulations of, 441
Population, Essay on, 337
Pratt's John and Dame, 102
Priest's Travels in America, 77

R

Rashleigh's British Minerals, Part II. 436
Reason Why, 207. 438
Redouté on Liliaceous Plants, 511
Recce's Domestic Medical Guide, 210
Rees's (Mr.) Account of the Doctrines of Christianity, 219
—— (Dr.) Fast Sermon, 223
Reflections on Cambridgeshire Elections, 209
——— on the Invasion, 439
Regulations of Parochial Police, 441
Relhan's *Flora Cantabrigiensis, Edit. alt.* 437
Render's Tour through Germany, 142
Remerciemens sur les Evénemens en Suisse, 544
Reply to two Answers to Why do we go to War? 437
Report on the Cowpock Institution, 212
Reports of Cases in the King's Bench, 97
———, Term, 99
Respiration, Memoirs on, 497
Ritson on Animal Food, 40
Robison's Edition of Black's Lectures, 187
Royal Society of London, Philosophical Transactions of, Part I. for 1803, 394
Ruptures. See *Sheldrake*
Rural Philosophy, 82
—— Tales, 215
Russia and France, intrinsic Strength of, 306

S

Sandes's Three Discourses on Books, &c. 220
Say on Political Economy, 514
Scotland, Coasts of, Letter on improving, 54
Scott's Minstrelsy of the Scottish Borders, 21
Segur on Women, 484
Senebier's Edition of Spallanzani on Respiration, 497
Sermons, Single, 111. 223. 224. 330—335. 445—447.
———, collected. See *Stevens*. See *Gardiner*.
Sheep, Facts and Observations on, 168
Sheldrake's Hints on Ruptures, 212
Shepard's Lives of Painters, 109
Shepherd's Life of Poggio Bracciolini, 45
Simmons's Arguments on the Small Pox, 94
Sketches on the Strength, &c. of France and Russia, 306
Solicitor's Practice, 96
Somerville, Lord, his Facts and Observations, 162
Sotheby's Oberon, a Mask, 432
Soulavie's History of the Civil War in France, 532
South Sea, Discoveries in, History of, 414
Spallanzani on Respiration, 497
Spirit, Public, Appeal to, 105
——— of the Public Journals, Vols. V. VI. 221
Stephens's History of the Wars of the French Revolution, 273
Stevens's Sermons, 73
Stewart's Sermon, 335
Strength of Britain, a Sermon, 333
Sullivan's Test of Union and Loyalty, 328
Swinburne on Testaments, 97
Swiss, History of, 449
Switzerland, History of the Invasion of, 424
———, Information concerning Events in, 544

T

Tableau de la Grande Bretagne, 501
Tauride, Tour through, 225
Terrible Tractoration, 217
Testaments, Treatise on, 97
Theology, Natural, 262
Thorp's Sermon, 335
Thoughts on the Invasion, 103
Three Discourses to the Library Society, 220
Tilly's Miscellaneous Works, 476
Tourifications of Malachi Meldrum, 131
Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. V. Part II. 296
Travels. See *Priest*. *Reader*. *Guthrie*.
Tresham's Heroic Epistle from Britannicus to Bonaparte, 444
Turner on British Fuci, 15
Turton's Translation of Linné's System of Nature, 374
Tweedie on the present Crisis, 102

V and U

Vapours, Mineral Acid. See *Johnstone*.
Vesica Lotura. See *Foot*.
View of the Consequences of Imprisonment for Debt, 97
—— of the Huttonian and Neptunian Systems, 294
Vitet's Expectant Medicine, 519
Underhill, Dr, Adventures of, 86
Union with Ireland, History of, 200
—— and Peace, attempt to promote, 320
Universal Atlas, 318
Volunteers, Address to, 107. 208
Voyage round the World, 202
Voyages. See *Boudry*. See *Marchand*.

W

Wake's Edition of Swinburne on Testaments, 97
Wakefield's Address to the Richmond Volunteers, 107
———'s Sermon, 111
Wales, New South, Account of, 1
———, Prince of, his Correspondence, 443
Walker's Fragments, 33
War Elegies, 173
——, Elements of, 201
——, Essay on, a Poem, 378
——, Civil, in France, History of, 532
Wars of the French Revolution, History of, 273
Warren's Verses on Beneficence, 99
Webb's Miscellanies, 110
Wet-nursing, Considerations on, 495
What have we to fight for? 104
Whately on the Irish Fishery, 62

Why do we go to War? Tracts in Answer to that Pamphlet, 207. 437, 438. 443.
Wilmshurst, Mrs., her Spelling-Book, 218
———, ———, her Progressive Instructions, 219
Women. See *Segur*.
Wood on the Importance of Malta, 196
Wright's Attempt to promote Union, 320
———'s Fast Sermon, 332

Z

Zschokke's History of the Invasion of Swisserland, translated, 424

ERRATA in Volume XLII.

Page 66. l. 30. after 'heights of,' insert *the*
82. in the title of Art. XII. for 'Johnson,' read *Longman and Rees*
102. in the title of Art. 29. for '8vo. *or*, read *or* 8vo.
143. l. 9. for 'cautious,' read *cautions*
158. l. 28. after 'and,' insert *with*
215. l. 26 after 'gratitude,' dele '*of*'
222. last line of note, for 'other,' read *others*
295. l. 25. dele '*as*'
358. l. 26. for 'ακαλασιυνας,' read ακαλασκευας
370. l. 12. from bottom, for 'εμϚαλον' read εμϚαλον
443. l. 22. dele '*and*'

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1803.

ART. I. *An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales*, from its first Settlement, in January 1788, to August 1801: With Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, some Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by Permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor King; and an Account of a Voyage performed by Captain Flinders and Mr. Bass; by which the Existence of a Strait separating Van Dieman's Land from the Continent of New Holland was ascertained: abstracted from the Journal of Mr. Bass. By Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, of the Royal Marines, late Judge-Advocate and Secretary of the Colony. Illustrated by Engravings. Vol. II. 4to. pp. 335. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE question whether colonial possessions are eventually advantageous to the parent state is a very important one, and many able politicians have been at variance in their discussion of it. Circumstances, however, will undoubtedly make a difference with respect to the eligibility of such property; and perhaps, therefore, the rule should not be made general either way, but each case be decided by its own particular merits: or at least, if an abstract position be taken, it must be liable to exceptions. The policy of forming a settlement at New South Wales, by transporting thither a number of offenders against the laws of this country, has been much canvassed; and at this distance of time since it was first established, the final success of the experiment is more than doubtful: but, be the issue what it may, the annals of this Antipodean colony present a curious variety in the history of our species, which cannot fail to fix the attention and exercise the reasoning of speculative minds. The more immediate dictates of duty imperiously call on the legislature to weigh, with much candour and deliberation, all authentic details of this undertaking; and thence to decide on the propriety of maintaining at an enormous expence the refuse of our society, on such distant and unpromising shores: where so very few individuals have been

reclaimed from their vicious propensities, and so many have expiated their follies and their crimes by the hand of the executioner, or by the spear of the savage, or by the poison of ardent spirits.

The first volume of this work was mentioned at considerable length in our xxviith vol. N. S., and Colonel Collins informs us that he has prepared the second from materials on which he can safely stake his credit.—To relieve the monotony of details which are not in their nature very gratifying, he has interspersed occasional notices of natural history; and he has given the substance of two voyages in the order in which they occurred, instead of throwing them into an appendix.

Colonel C. re-commences his journal in September 1796, when the erection of a log-prison at each of the towns of Sydney and Parramatta occupied the principal attention of the Governor and his officers. Some of the convicts were so addicted to practise imposition, and their behaviour was so incorrigibly flagitious, that it became necessary for the public safety to complete the construction of these places of confinement with all possible dispatch. On the 29th of November, eight prisoners were capitally convicted, viz. one of wilful murder, and seven of robbing the public stores; and of these unfortunate people, five were executed.

'The court having ordered that Francis Morgan should be hung in chains upon the small island which is situated in the middle of the harbour, and named by the natives Mat-te-wan-ye, a gibbet was accordingly erected, and he was hung there, exhibiting an object of much greater terror to the natives, than to the white people, many of whom were more inclined to make a jest of it; but to the natives his appearance was so frightful,—his clothes shaking in the wind, and the creaking of his irons, added to their superstitious ideas of ghosts (for these children of ignorance imagined that, like a ghost, this man might have the power of taking hold of them by the throat), all rendering him such an alarming object to them,—that they never trusted themselves near him, nor the spot on which he hung; which, until this time, had ever been with them a favourite place of resort.'

We are likewise told that, 'the savage inhabitants of the country, instead of losing any part of their native ferocity of manners by an intercourse with the Europeans among whom they dwelt, seemed rather to delight in exhibiting themselves as monsters of the greatest cruelty, devoid of reason, and guided solely by the impulse of the worst passions.' The sequel affords too many instances of this painful truth. The prospect of introducing civilization and the arts among thinly scattered tribes of wretched beings;—who, invested with

the human form, have wandered, perhaps for many ages, in their native woods, destitute of clothing, and limiting their numbers by the most brutal modes of infanticide and a malignant spirit of petty and incessant warfare;—may kindle in some benevolent bosoms the flame of ecstatic philanthropy: but it cannot, we apprehend, be realized through the good offices and kind cares of those who are publicly branded with infamy and guilt, and who have forfeited their liberty to the laws of their own country.

In January 1797, 'the weather had been most uncomfortably hot, accompanied with some severe thunder storms; in one of which both the flag-staff at the south-head, and that at the entrance of the Cove, on Point Maskelyne, were shivered to pieces by the lightning. The vast blazes of fire, which were seen in every direction, and which were freshened by every blast of wind, added much to the suffocating heat that prevailed.' The heat and drought are sometimes so excessive as to burn up vegetation, and nearly to annihilate the crops of wheat and maize. Fahrenheit's thermometer once stood at 107 in the shade. Thunder and hail storms are also remarked for their violence; and the river Hawkesbury is subject to very sudden and dangerous floods.—Thus the elements conspire with men to retard the progress of this very extraordinary settlement.

Mention is made of a singular theft about the middle of March. 'While the miller was absent for a short time, part of the sails belonging to the mill were stolen. Now this machine was at work for the benefit of those very incorrigible vagabonds who had thus, for a time, prevented its being of use to any one, and who, being too lazy to grind for themselves, had formerly been obliged to pay one third of their whole allowance of wheat, to have the remainder ground for them by handmills, an expence that was saved to them by bringing their corn to the public mill.'

By a more zealous than judicious interference of the Governor, the prices of labour were regulated by a fixed tariff, of which a table is inserted in the text.

About the same time, the peaceable settlers were not a little molested, on the one hand, by 600 convicts whose terms of service had expired, and, on the other, by the predatory attacks of a large body of the natives.—Here we must beg leave to advert to the peculiar hardship of those minor delinquents, whose season of bondage was limited to a certain period. Their certificate of emancipation, so far from restoring them to the condition in which punishment had overtaken them, only absolved them from the performance of public service,

and left them a dead weight on themselves and on the factitious community to which they belonged. Unless they could afford to defray their passage home, (which can scarcely be expected,) sentence of transportation for seven years was equivalent to perpetual banishment from England; and, most probably, to an additional load of idleness on a colony which still depended for its existence on the mother country. We have also to notice the shameful neglect of transporting many Irish convicts, without intimating, by any official document, the duration of their respective terms of bondage. This evil was, indeed, afterward partially corrected; and we trust that it is now wholly removed.

From the contemplation of physical disadvantages and moral enormities, it is pleasing to turn to objects of real utility. In the month of April, an excellent and seasonable substitute for hemp was discovered in the bark of a tree which was observed on the banks of the Hawkesbury. This tree, of which an accurate description is given, grew to the height of from fifty to seventy feet, and its diameter was from the smallest size to a foot. If the bark be soaked in water, and beaten, it spins easily, and is remarkably strong.—In September, Lieutenant Shortland, of the Reliance, found a very considerable quantity of coal in a harbour in Hunter's River.

The intercourse with India was found to be pregnant with great evil to the colony, as it afforded a facility of procuring spirituous liquors; which were in much greater request than any foreign commodity whatever, and which, in spite of every precaution, continued to exercise their baneful influence on the health and conduct of their devoted victims.

A fruitless search was made after fifteen convicts, who had effected their escape from the settlement in two boats: but, as the weather was stormy when they put off from land, it was presumed that they had perished. In consequence of this event, the Governor prohibited the building of boats without his previous permission.

Towards the latter end of November, James Wilson, who had roamed for some time among the natives, and had submitted to the painful operation of having his breast and shoulders scarified after their manner, surrendered himself to the Governor's clemency, and received his pardon. It was judiciously proposed, that he should be employed in search of some of the convicts who were at large in the woods.

In pp. 62. & 321. the Colonel gives some particulars respecting the *Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus*, which was introduced to our readers in our xxxixth vol. p. 403.

Although

'Although the settlement (he says) had now been established within a month of ten years, yet little had been added to the stock of natural history which had been acquired in the first year or two of its infancy. The Kangooroo, the Dog, the Opossum, the Flying Squirrel, the Kangooroo Rat, a spotted Rat, the common Rat, and the large Fox-bat (if entitled to a place in this society), made up the whole catalogue of animals that were known at this time, with the exception which must now be made of an amphibious animal, of the mole species, one of which had been lately found on the banks of a lake near the Hawkesbury. In size it was considerably larger than the land mole. The eyes were very small. The fore legs, which were shorter than the hind, were observed, at the feet, to be provided with four claws, and a membrane, or web, that spread considerably beyond them, while the feet of the hind legs were furnished, not only with this membrane or web, but with four long and sharp claws, that projected as much beyond the web, as the web projected beyond the claws of the fore feet. The tail of this animal was thick, short, and very fat; but the most extraordinary circumstance observed in its structure was, its having, instead of the mouth of an animal, the upper and lower mandibles of a duck. By these it was enabled to supply itself with food, like that bird, in muddy places, or on the banks of the lakes, in which its webbed feet enabled it to swim; while on shore, its long and sharp claws were employed in burrowing; nature thus providing for it in its double or amphibious character. These little animals had been frequently noticed rising to the surface of the water, and blowing like the turtle.'

In January 1798, the restless and discontented spirit of the Irish convicts, whose ignorance was equalled only by their inhumanity, broke forth in their disposition to traverse an unknown extent of woody and mountainous country, and to take up their abode in a supposed settlement of *whites*, or even in China. Several of these deluded wretches had occasionally run off into the woods, and had perished either by famine or the assaults of the natives. Their wild scheme of migration, however, was frustrated by the vigilance of the Governor; and, that he might convince them by their own experience of the futility of their project, he caused four of the stoutest and boldest among them to be chosen by themselves, and properly prepared for a journey of discovery. They were to be accompanied by three men, in whom the Governor could confide, and were to be re-conducted to the settlement, when tired of their journey. Accordingly, they left Parramatta on the 14th of January: but three of them came back, with their military escort, on the 24th, having advanced only to the foot of the first ridge of mountains. The rest of the party returned on the 9th of February. The result of their observations (if the observations of such people be worthy of reliance) is, that they penetrated about 140 miles in

a south-westerly direction from Parramatta, crossed some tracts of good soil thinly wooded, met with a large cliff of rock-salt, and saw Kangooroos, Emus, and the superb Mænura, which last they had mistaken for the Pheasant. With great difficulty, they had procured a precarious and miserable subsistence, and returned emaciated, and almost fainting.

It was at this time that Mr. Bass, a gentleman distinguished by his activity and intelligence, explored the coast as far to the southward as latitude 40°, in a whale-boat, but found only in one place a harbour capable of admitting ships. 'There was every appearance of an extensive strait, or rather an open sea, between the latitudes of 39° and 40° south, and that Van Diemen's land consisted (as had been conjectured) of a group of islands lying off the southern coast of the country.' This appearance was afterward completely verified.

On the 14th of May, the Nautilus, a small brig, arrived in a very leaky condition from Otaheite. Her commander, Mr. Bishop, had shewn every attention to the unfortunate missionaries of that quarter, which the shattered state of his vessel would permit; 'he embarked men, women, and children, to the number of 19; and, though with infinite difficulty, brought them in safety to this port, the vessel being so extremely leaky, that it required the labour of the whole company to keep her above water. She was not able to bring them all away, six or seven remaining upon the island, whose fate was certainly very precarious. Those who had arrived were treated by the colonists with every attention, and every possible relief administered to their distresses.'

On the 18th of July, the Britannia whaler arrived from England, 'with 94 female convicts, who were forthwith landed, and some of them were sent to Parramatta and Toongabbe. The cattle that were brought in the Hunter, and which were sold by auction at this time, were not greater objects of contest than were these females, the number of women in the settlements bearing no proportion to the men.' The marked indulgence, however, with which they were received, produced no amelioration of conduct. To the disgrace of their sex, the females appear to have been the first in every species of profligacy, and the last in acquiring habits of regular industry. Yet we should recollect that, before the sense of shame becomes extinguished, women usually excel men in correctness of deportment, and in the practice of virtue.

At page 124. we find the following traits of the barbarity of the natives of New South Wales:

'Gaining every day some further knowledge of the inhuman habits and customs of these people, their being so thinly scattered through

through the country ceased to be a matter of surprise. It was almost daily seen, that from some trifling cause or other they were continually living in a state of warfare; to this must be added their brutal treatment of their women, who are themselves equally destructive to the measure of population, by the horrid and cruel custom of endeavouring to cause a miscarriage, which their female acquaintance effect by pressing the body in such a way, as to destroy the infant in the womb; which violence not unfrequently occasions the death of the unnatural mother also. To this they have recourse, to avoid the trouble of carrying the infant about when born, which, when it is very young, or at the breast, is the duty of the woman. The operation for this destructive purpose is termed Mee-brā. The burying an infant (when at the breast) with the mother, if she should die, is another shocking cause of the thinness of population among them. The fact that such an operation as the Mee-brā was practised by these wretched people was communicated by one of the natives to the principal surgeon of the settlement.'

At the commencement of 1799, agricultural concerns are said to have worn a most unpromising appearance. 'The wheat proved little better than straw or chaff; and the maize was burnt up in the ground for want of rain. From the establishment of the settlement, so much continued drought and suffocating heat had not been experienced. The country was now in flames; the wind northerly and parching; and some showers of rain, which fell on the 7th [January], were of no advantage, being immediately taken up again by the excessive heat of the sun.'

We have now to attend on Lieutenant (since Captain) Flinders and Mr. Bass, on their voyage of discovery in the sloop Norfolk. Mr. Bass, who acted as surgeon to the Reliance, appears to have examined the places at which he touched with a scientific eye; and, after having perused the records of ignorance and depravity, the notices of his progress are peculiarly refreshing.

At *Twofold Bay*, their first anchoring station, the dark luxuriant foliage of the valleys indicated the advantages which they had derived from the hills, whose vegetable earth is washed down their steep sides almost as fast as it is formed:—but the valleys are extremely narrow, and overrun with brushwood and large timber, interwoven by creeping vines, of every size 'between small twine and a seven-inch hawser.' The country along the back of the bay is disposed in rounded stoney hills, scarcely fit for pasturage, but covered with timber and patches of short brushwood. The sloping hills on the eastern side had a pleasing appearance from the bay. By far the greater part of the land, however, around the bay, seems to be unfit for cultivation. The natives resemble those of Port Jackson, but

speak a different language, and use canoes, of which they are very careful.

The huge blocks of granite on *Preservation Island* seem to have overwhelmed Mr. Bass's ordinary powers of explanation, and to have driven him to the supposition of the agency of subterraneous fire: but these *stumbling blocks* very probably formed, at some time, the nuclei of larger masses of a softer texture; which, in obedience to the constantly operating laws of decomposition, have wasted away, and left their more durable kernels completely exposed. Granite itself, though stubborn and refractory, is not immortal; and, after a lapse of ages, *the place which once knew it shall know it no more for ever.*

'The vegetation on the island seems brown and starved. It consists of a few stunted trees; several patches of brush, close set and almost impenetrable; large tufts of sour and wiry grass; and abundance of low saltish plants, chiefly of the creeping kind.'—

'Amid a patch of naked sand, upon one of the highest parts of the island, at not less than 100 feet above the level of the sea, within the limits of a few hundred yards square, were lying scattered about a number of short broken branches of old dead trees, of from one to three inches in diameter, and seemingly of a kind similar to the large brush wood. Amid these broken branches were seen sticking up several white stoney stumps, of sizes ranging between the above diameters, and in height from a foot to a foot and a half. Their peculiar form, together with a number of prongs of their own quality, projecting in different directions from around their base, and entering the ground in the manner of roots, presented themselves to the mind of an observer, with a striking resemblance to the stumps and roots of small trees. These were extremely brittle, the slightest blow with a stick, or with each other, being sufficient to break them short off; and when taken into the hand, many of them broke to pieces with their own weight.

'On being broken transversely, it was immediately seen that the internal part was divided into interior or central, exterior or cortical. The exterior part, which in different specimens occupied various proportions of the whole, resembled a fine white and soft grit-stone; but acids being applied, shewed it to be combined with a considerable portion of calcareous matter. The interior or central part was always circular, but seldom found of the same diameter, or of the same composition, on any two stumps. In some, the calcareous and sandy matter had taken such entire possession, that every fragment of the wood was completely obliterated; but yet a faint central ring remained. In others was a center of chalk, beautifully white, that crumbled between the fingers to the finest powder; some consisted of chalk and brown earth, in various quantities, and some others had retained a few frail portions of their woody fibres, the spaces between which were filled up with chalky earth.

'It appeared that when the people of the Sydney Cove first came upon the island, the pieces of dead branches that at this time were lying

lying round the stumps, then formed, with them, the stem and branches of dead trees complete. But by the time Mr. Bass visited the place, the hands of curiosity, and the frolics of an unruly horse that was saved from the wreck, had reduced them to the state already described.

'Mr. Bass had been told from good authority, that when the trees were in a complete state, the diameter of the dead wood of the stem that rose immediately from the stoney part was equal to the diameter of that part; and also that a living leaf was seen upon the uppermost branches of one of them. But he could never learn whether the stoney part of the stem was of an equal height in all the trees.

'To ascertain to what depth the petrification had extended, Mr. Bass scratched away the sand from the foot of many of the stumps, and in no instance found it to have proceeded more than three or four inches beneath the surface of the sand, as it then lay; for at that depth the brown and crumbling remains of the root came into view. There were, indeed, parts of the roots which had undergone an alteration similar to that which had taken place in the stems: but these tended to establish the limits of the petrifying power; for they had felt it only either at their first outset from the bottom of the stems, or when, being obstructed in their progress, they had of necessity arched upwards toward the surface.

'In attempting to account for the cause that had operated to produce this change in the structure of the lower parts of the stems of these trees, Mr. Bass feels the utmost diffidence. He found that all his conjectures which were best supported by existing facts, led him to place them among petrifactions; although no strict analogy could be seen between them and the subjects usually met with of this kind.

'Admitting them, however, as petrifactions, it is certain that there must once have existed a pond in which the petrifying water was contained; but the ground in their neighbourhood retained no positive traces of any such receptacle. There were, indeed, near them, some few lumps or banks consisting of sand, and a little vegetable earth which was held together by dead roots of small trees, and elevated above the rest of the ground, to the height of five, six, or eight feet; but the relative position of these with each other was so confused and irregular, that nothing but the necessity of a once-existing reservoir could ever lead any one to conjecture that these might have been parts of its bank. Mr. Bass, however, rather concluded that this must have been the case, and that the remainder of the bank had been torn away, and the pond itself annihilated by some violent effort of an unknown power.'

Several snakes with poison-fangs were found here; and the water, which was reckoned injurious to health, was supposed to contain arsenic.—*Linquenda tellus.*

The description of *Cape Barren Island* corresponds, in many particulars, with its name:

'It is singular, that a place wherein food seemed to be so scarce should yet be so thickly inhabited by the small brush Kangooroo, and a new quadruped, which was also a grass-eater.

'This animal, being a new one, appears to deserve a particular description. The *Wom-bat* (or, as it is called by the natives of Port Jackson, the *Womback*) is a squat, thick, short-legged, and rather inactive quadruped, with great appearance of stumpy strength, and somewhat bigger than a large turnspit dog. Its figure and movements, if they do not exactly resemble those of the bear, at least strongly remind one of that animal.

'Its length, from the tip of the tail to the tip of the nose, is thirty-one inches, of which its body takes up twenty-three and five-tenths. The head is seven inches, and the tail five-tenths. Its circumference behind the fore-legs, twenty-seven inches; across the thickest part of the belly, thirty-one inches. Its weight by hand is somewhat between twenty-five and thirty pounds. The hair is coarse, and about one inch or one inch and five tenths in length, thinly set upon the belly, thicker on the back and head, and thickest upon the loins and rump; the colour of it a light sandy brown, of varying shades, but darkest along the back.

'The head is large and flattish, and, when looking the animal full in the face, seems, excluding the ears, to form nearly an equilateral triangle, any side of which is about seven inches and five tenths in length, but the upper side, or that which constitutes the breadth of the head, is rather the shortest. The hair upon the face lies in regular order, as if it were combed, with its ends pointed upwards in a kind of radii, from the nose their centre.

'The ears are sharp and erect, of two inches and three-tenths in length, stand well asunder, and are in no wise disproportionate. The eyes are small, and rather sunken than prominent, but quick and lively. They are placed about two inches and five tenths asunder, a little below the centre of the imaginary triangle towards the nose. The nice co-adaptation of their ciliary processes, which are covered with a fine hair, seems to afford the animal an extraordinary power of excluding whatever might be hurtful.

'The nose is large or spreading, the nostrils large, long, and capable of being closed. They stand angularly with each other, and a channel is continued from them towards the upper lip, which is divided like the hare's. The whiskers are rather thick and strong, and are in length from two to three inches and five tenths.

'The opening of its mouth is small; it contains five long grass-cutting teeth in the front of each jaw, like those of the Kangooroo; within them is a vacancy for an inch or more, then appear two small canine teeth of equal height with, and so much similar to, eight molares situated behind, as scarcely to be distinguishable from them. The whole number in both jaws amount to twenty-four.

'The neck is thick and short, and greatly restrains the motions of the head, which, according to the common expression, looks as if it was stuck upon the shoulders.

'From the neck, the back arches a little as far as the loins, whence it goes off at a flat slope to the hindmost parts, where not any tail is visible. A tail, however, may be found by carefully passing the finger over the flat slope in a line with the back bone. After separating the hairs, it is seen of some five tenths of an inch in length, and

from

from three to one tenth of an inch in diameter, naked, except for a few short fine hairs near its end. This curious tail seemed to hold a much bolder proportion in the young than in the full-grown animal.

'The fore legs are very strong and muscular: their length, to the sole of the paw, is five inches five tenths, and the distance between them is five inches and five tenths. The paws are fleshy, round, and large, being one inch and nine tenths in diameter. Their claws are five in number, attached to as many short digitations. The three middle claws are strong, and about eight or nine tenths of an inch in length; the thumb and little finger claws are also strong, but shorter than the others, being only from six to seven tenths of an inch. The fleshy root of the thumb claw is smaller and more flexible than the others. The sole of the paw is hard, and the upper part is covered with the common hair, down to the roots of the claws which it overhangs. The hind legs are less strong and muscular than the fore; their length, to the sole, is five inches and five tenths; the distance between, seven inches and five tenths. The hind paw is longer than the fore, but not less fleshy; its length is two inches and seven tenths, its breadth two inches and six tenths. The claws are four in number: the three inner ones are less strong, but about two tenths of an inch longer than the longest of the fore claws; and there is a fleshy spur in the place of a thumb claw. The whole paw has a curve, which throws its fore part rather inward.

'In size the two sexes are nearly the same, but the female is perhaps rather the heaviest.

'In the opinion of Mr. Bass, this Wom-bat seemed to be very œconomically made; but he thought it unnecessary to give an account of its internal structure in his journal.

'This animal has not any claim to swiftness of foot, as most men could run it down. Its pace is hobbling or shuffling, something like the awkward gait of a bear. In disposition it is mild and gentle, as becomes a grass-eater; but it bites hard, and is furious when provoked. Mr. Bass never heard its voice but at that time: it was a low cry, between a hissing and a whizzing, which could not be heard at a distance of more than thirty or forty yards. He chased one, and with his hands under his belly suddenly lifted him off the ground without hurting him, and laid him upon his back along his arm, like a child. It made no noise, nor any effort to escape, not even a struggle. Its countenance was placid and undisturbed, and it seemed as contented as if it had been nursed by Mr. Bass* from its infancy. He carried the beast upwards of a mile, and often shifted him from arm to arm, sometimes laying him upon his shoulder, all of which he took in good part; until, being obliged to secure his legs while he went into the brush to cut a specimen of a new wood, the creature's anger arose with the pinching of the twine; he whizzed with all his might, kicked and scratched most furiously, and snapped off a piece from the elbow of Mr. Base's jacket with his grass-cutting teeth. Their friendship was here at an end, and the creature remained implacable all the way to the boat, ceasing to kick only when he was exhausted.

'* The Kangooroo, and some other animals in New South Wales, were remarkable for being domesticated as soon as taken.'

'This

'This circumstance seemed to indicate, that with kind treatment the Wom-bat might soon be rendered extremely docile, and probably affectionate; but let his tutor beware of giving him provocation, at least if he should be full grown.

'Besides Furneaux's Islands, the Wom-bat inhabits, as has been seen, the mountains to the westward of Port Jackson. In both these places its habitation is under ground, being admirably formed for burrowing, but to what depth it descends does not seem to be ascertained. According to the account given of it by the natives, the Wom-bat of the mountains is never seen during the day, but lives retired in his hole, feeding only in the night; but that of the islands is seen to feed in all parts of the day. His food is not yet well known; but it seems probable that he varies it, according to the situation in which he may be placed. The stomachs of such as Mr. Bass examined were distended with the coarse wiry grass, and he, as well as others, had seen the animal scratching among the dry ricks of sea-weed thrown up upon the shores, but could never discover what it was in search of. Now the inhabitant of the mountains can have no recourse to the sea-shore for his food, nor can he find there any wiry grass of the islands, but must live upon the food that circumstances present to him.'

Leaving the *Swan Isles*, (on which our voyagers found *geese*, but not a single *swan*,) they steered to the westward, along shore, for Van Diemen's land.—The quality of the ground about *Port Dalrymple* was superior to most which had been examined on the borders of any of the salt-water inlets of New South Wales, Western Port excepted. 'Some parts that were low and level had a wet and peat-like surface, bounded by small tracts of flowering shrubs and odoriferous plants, that perfumed the air with the fragrance of their oils*. These retained in general the appearance of those in New South Wales, while they were in reality very different. The rich and vivid colouring of the more northern flowers, and that soft and exquisite gradation of their tints, for which they are so singularly distinguished, hold with those here, but in a less eminent degree. The two countries present a perfect similarity in this, that the more barren spots are the most gaily adorned. The curious florist, and scientific botanist, would find ample subject of exultation in their different researches in Port Dalrymple.'

The heavy timber consists chiefly of gum tree, of various species. Many aquatic birds frequent the arms and coves of the river, but the black swans alone are remarkable in point of number. 'Mr. Bass once made a rough calculation of 300 swimming within the space of a quarter of a mile square; and heard the *dying song* of some scores; that song, so celebrated

'* In this particular, they differ from the flowering shrubs of New South Wales; none, or very few, of which were ever found, beautiful as they were in other respects, to possess the smallest odour.'

by

by the poets of former times, exactly resembled the creaking of a rusty sign on a windy day!'—The extreme shyness of the inhabitants prevented any communication: but, from several traces of their modes of life, it was conjectured that, in the scale of *civilization*, they are inferior even to the despised natives of the continent.

Our limits will not permit us to pursue more closely the novel track of these interesting navigators. The Governor named the principal discovery of the voyage *Bass Strait*, 'as a tribute due to the correctness of judgment which led Mr. Bass, in his first visit in the whale-boat, to suppose that the south-westerly winds which rolled in upon the shores of Western Port, could proceed only from their being exposed to the southern Indian ocean.'

On resuming the author's own narrative, we find that February was distinguished by robberies, executions, and the wilful burning of the log-prison at Sydney. The prison at Parramatta underwent the same fate, about the end of the year. In June, the picture of affairs was certainly not more flattering: a violent tempest arose; and

'The ravages of this storm were so great, that the settlement was thrown back nearly twelve months in those works which at the time were expected very shortly to be completed. The weather, from the beginning of this month, had never since the establishment of the colony been observed to be so severe. The settlement had indeed, between the fires of the summer, and the floods and gales of the winter, suffered very considerably. Added to these, at this time, were the inconveniences arising from an unproductive harvest, from an exhausted store in the very essential articles of clothing and bedding, from the hostile disposition of many of the natives, and from the annihilation of morality, honesty, and industry, in the major part of the colonists.'

On the 8th of July, Mr. Flinders again sailed in the Norfolk sloop, on a voyage to the northward. In the course of this trip, he had some unpleasant rencontres with the natives; and he also consigned to his journal many remarks which our nautical readers will peruse with attention,—the more so, as they do not altogether coincide with those of Captain Cook.

The following year (1800) presents us with few occurrences of moment, besides the repetition of crimes and of distressing accidents. One or two passages, however, deserve to be excepted from this remark:

'Captain Waterhouse, in an excursion which he made to the north arm of Broken Bay, wounded and secured a bird, of a species never seen before in New South Wales, at least by any of the colonists. It was a large eagle, which gave a proof of his strength, by driving his talons through a man's foot, while lying in the bottom of the boat, with his legs tied together. It stood about three feet in height, and during

during the ten days that it lived with them was remarkable for refusing to be fed by any but one particular person. Among the natives it was an object of wonder and fear, as they could never be prevailed on to go near it. They asserted, that it would carry off a middle-sized Kangooroo. Captain Waterhouse hoped to have brought it to England; but it was one morning found to have divided the strands of a rope with which it was fastened, and escaped.'

Colonel C.'s regular narrative terminates on the 1st of October, when Governor Hunter took leave of the settlement. A few abstracts and notices are subjoined, which will prove gratifying to those who take any particular interest in the fate of this remote and cheerless establishment.

On the 30th of June 1801, the total of persons under the authority of the Governor amounted to six thousand five hundred and eight. The live stock belonging to individuals consisted of 6269 sheep, 362 head of cattle, 211 horses, 1259 goats, and 4766 hogs. In August 1801, there belonged to government 488 sheep, 931 head of cattle, and 32 horses. Of ground in cultivation, individuals possessed 4857½ acres of wheat, and 3564 acres of maize. Government, at the same time, had 467 acres of wheat, and 300 acres of maize.

It is almost superfluous to observe, that the author has strictly adhered to the use of plain language in detailing plain matters of fact; and that his subject was little susceptible of variety or embellishment. The chart of the settlements, and nine plates, form no trivial addition to this part of his work.

'With this information, (says Col. C.) I must here conclude my labours; and as the annalist of the English Colony in New South Wales, probably take my leave forever of that country, in whose service I spent the first nine years of its infancy, during all the difficulties and hardships with which, in that rude state, it had to contend: a country which has eventually proved the destruction of my brightest prospects; having, by my services there, been precluded from succeeding to my proper situation in the professional line to which I was bred; without any other reward as yet to boast of, than the conciousness of having ever been a faithful and zealous servant to my employers, and knowing that the peculiar hardship of my case has been acknowledged by every gentleman, in and out of office, to whom it has been communicated.'

May the present dispensers of public favours bestow, on this modest and affecting hint, the attention which it merits!

ART.

ART. II. *A Synopsis of the British Fuci.* By Dawson Turner, A. M., Member of the Imperial Academy Naturæ Curiosorum, of the Linnæan Society of London, and of the Physical Society of Göttingen. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. 6d. sewed. White. 1802.

OUR insular situation, and the possession of the Linnéan Herbarium, are circumstances peculiarly favourable to the prosecution of marine botany in this country. The ignorant, the cynical, or the sordid, may triumphantly exclaim *cui bono?* but no gentleman of competent information needs now to be told that the subject, perplexing and difficult as it may appear, is far from being barren of utility and instruction. The *projecta vilior alga* has now lost the force of its application; since several of the submersed species have been discovered to possess properties directly useful to the purposes of life; others, no doubt, will be found to serve important and beneficial ends; and the structure, growth, habits, and decay of all will reveal to the curious cryptogamist a new series of varieties in vegetable physiology.

The author of these volumes has, therefore, rendered an essential service to the public by exhibiting, in a commodious and distinct form, all that is at present known concerning the British Fuci. This knowlege, however limited, lay scattered in large and costly publications; in the Transactions of learned societies, in Gmelin's *Historia Fucorum*, Gunner's *Flora Norvegica*, the *Flora Danica*, &c. but, especially, in the recent and splendid delineations of Stackhouse, Velley, and Esper.

Mr. Turner has uniformly, and in the most respectful manner, availed himself of the first authorities; and, when he feels himself compelled to dissent from them, it is always with diffidence and regret. While aware of the defects in the present botanical distribution of the submersed algæ, he prudently forbears from laying down another, because an arrangement founded solely on the British species cannot be presumed to be perfect; and when any important innovation is proposed, it is desirable that it should rest on stable principles.

'On this subject,' says he, 'I will offer the single hint, that the submersed algæ, with the addition, perhaps, of the Byssi and Tremellæ, ought to form a distinct order of the Class Cryptogamia; and that, in a new arrangement, the first step must be to throw them into a general mass, paying no respect to the genera as they now exist, all of which comprize plants of the most anomalous nature, many Conferviæ having the fruit of Fuci, some Fuci that of Ulvæ, and vice versâ. I might be tempted here to enter in some measure upon a slight digression respecting the remaining aquatic genera, were not the Conferva already in the hands of Professor Mertens and Mr. Dillwyn, who will soon favour the world with their observations

on

on the subject; and did I not wish to reserve what I have to say upon the Ulvæ till it is in my power to publish a history of them; materials for which I have been sometime engaged in collecting.'

Without taking a very decided part in the much agitated question concerning the destination of the root of Fuci, Mr. T. seems inclined to believe, that it may be subservient at once to the nourishment and mechanical fixture of the stem:

'One of the most remarkable circumstances attending the physiology of the Fuci is the extreme rapidity of their growth and decay; a singular instance of which I had an opportunity of observing when, in July 1798, I visited the rocks at Cromer, and found them almost exclusively covered with Ulva filiformis, (Hudson,) of which, in the following September, not a trace remained: but this, if we consider the gelatinous substance of the plant, is not perhaps wonderful. Ulva plumosa and fistulosa, together with F. filum, dasyphyllus, and confervoides, had then occupied its place; some whereof being at that time new to me, I returned about two months afterwards to procure a fresh supply, when, of them all, nothing but a few broken pieces of the last remained to prove their ever having existed; and they had been succeeded by F. vesiculosus and Ulva umbilicalis. Mr. Dillwyn, during his residence at Dover, observed several instances of the same nature; and the fresh-water Confervæ partake of this fugitive quality; for often, where I have known ditches filled with particular species, I have returned after a short interval, and found not even a vestige of them left.'—

'Another remarkable circumstance attending the Fuci, for which it is not easy to account on philosophical principles, is the great diversity of species, produced by different places, even though but little removed from each other. Among phænogamous plants we know that Malvæ, Urticæ, Lamia, the more common grasses, &c. are predominant in almost every part of our island; but the same is far from being the case in the submersed algæ; for of those which are abundant at Yarmouth, some have never been found at Scarborough, others never at Dover; and those shores in return produce a different tribe, whereof many have not at present been discovered in Norfolk. To carry this observation a little farther, I may add that the same holds good in the Isle of Wight, Weymouth, and Cornwall, and even those individuals that are common to several parts of our island appear in distant places under such various forms, that the collecting them is almost equally interesting as if they were distinct species. Some not only flourish most on, but seem peculiar to, chalk; some to sand stone; some to hard, siliceous rocks: a remarkable instance whereof is afforded by Sherringham, a small village on the Norfolk coast, which, though not more than four miles distant from Cromer, yet, from its soil being quite different, produces different Fuci. This also seems to shew that the root of these plants is not without its use as an organ of nutrition.'

The corollary which concludes this extract is fairly deduced: but we confess that the premises do not strike us as forming a greater

greater singularity, than that one class of lichens should affect calcareous and another granite rocks; that the appearance of *Erica vagans* should indicate the presence of magnesian soil; or, that a change in the agricultural distribution of the same field should occasion a difference in its spontaneous productions.

To his Introduction, Mr. Turner has subjoined a *Synopsis Specierum*, comprising the botanical characters of the 78 species detailed in the sequel. The subdivisions are mostly those which Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward have laid down in their excellent paper inserted in the third volume of the Linnéan Transactions. The title of *fronde enervi*, however, has been substituted for that of *fronde aveniâ*, because the microscope has revealed a curious system of veins in *F. laceratus*, and the absence of a mid-rib is a character sufficiently obvious. The circumstance of the channelled frond (*fronde hinc canaliculatâ*) has been omitted, because it is seldom observed in the dried and pressed specimens from which too many botanists hastily form their judgment.

A convenient Index to the Latin names and synonyms precedes the detailed synopsis: for we use this last term in compliance with the author's modest title, though we regard his performance as a more accurate and comprehensive history of Fuci than any that has yet appeared. Each species is introduced by its botanical name; the characters, synonyms, references, varieties, and minute appropriate descriptions, follow in course. To these are subjoined many valuable remarks of a critical, physiological, and economical nature.

As an exemplification of Mr. T.'s plan and manner, we transcribe the article *Siliquosus*, which accidentally presents itself:

'FUCUS SILIQUOSUS.

'F. fronde compressâ *ramosâ*; foliis distichis alternis integerrimis; vesiculis pedunculatis oblongis cavis; siliquis lanceolatis solidis.—Herb. Linn.—Buddle, p. 15. n. 1.—Uvedale, p. 1. n. 2. and p. 5. n. 1. 2.—Buddle and Vernon, without fructification, p. 22. n. 3.—Gmelin, p. 81. t. 2. B.—Esp. p. 27. t. 8.—Fl. Dan. t. 106.—Ner. Brit. p. 8. t. 5.—E. B. t. 474.—Act. Paris. 1772, partie 2de pl. 4. f. 22. l. m. n. o. p. q. in fructification;—the root, f. 20. 21.—Micheli's Marine Plants, t. 22.—Linn. Sp. Pl. p. 1629.—Linn. Trans. iii. p. 124.—Fl. Ang. p. 574.—Fl. Scot. p. 921.—Fl. Fr. i. p. 96.—Fl. Suec. p. 431.—Fl. Lapp. p. 365.—Fl. Norv. i. p. 83.—With. iv. p. 88.

Fucus angustifolius, vesiculis longis siliquarum æmulis.—R. Syn. p. 48. n. 38.—Moris. Hist. Ox. p. 647. n. 7.

β. minor; fronde vix dodrantali.

Fucus siliculosus.—Ner. Brit. p. 42. t. 11.

α is common upon the shores of England, Wales, and Scotland: β was found by Mr. Stackhouse near Fowey, in Cornwall.

Perennial—November—March.

'Root an expanded disk; in perfect plants always cone-shaped, common to three or four coriaceous fronds, from one to four feet long, very smooth, first rising in the form of simple, flat, linear, mid-ribbed leaves, entire at their margins, and about two lines wide: at the height of an inch or less, these become pinnated with others similar to themselves, in an alternate, distichous series, and perforated with minute punctures. As the plant advances in age, the primary leaves thicken into compressed, solid stems and branches, beset on each side with alternate, pedunculate, oblong vesicles, of various length, on the same specimen from half an inch to three inches, transversely furrowed without, and hollow within, except that they are divided into compartments by from four to twenty septa, answering to the external furrows, each about two lines distant from the other, of a pulpy and transparent nature, but apparently not composed of the nerve of the leaves, as has been suggested; since that still remains, and runs, longitudinally, through them, in the form of a few thin, parallel, colourless, rarely anastomosing, fibres: the vesicles are generally terminated by a mucronated point, thin and solid, with no appearance either of joints or midrib; sometimes extending to an inch or more in length, and occasionally, though rarely, containing the seeds; the proper place for which is in shortly pedunculated siliquæ, whereof two or three are found at the end of almost every branch, of an oblongo-lanceolate form, compressed, and full of a parenchymous matter, among which the seeds lie in round or oval clusters, about thirty in each, situated in a circle round a minute perforation, whence they escape when they become ripe, before which time, it is closed, and appears only a dark spot. The colour is an olive green, soon changing to black: substance coriaceous, and very tough, but flexible: branches are very seldom, if ever, found so perfect as not to have lost some of their vesicles; the peduncles of which remaining, give the plant a thorny appearance.

'β differs in the smaller size of all its parts, and in its frond being not more than nine inches long.

'The list of references subjoined to the specific character of this Fucus sufficiently demonstrates that scarcely any species is more generally found upon those shores of the world which have been explored by the votaries of botany; fortunately, too, scarcely any is more readily distinguished, and scarcely any subject to less variation of appearance. Mr. Stackhouse's F. siliculosus, which alone I have considered deserving notice as a distinct variety, is remarkable for its dwarfish size, its bushy habit, and the comparative smallness of all its parts; except which, I can see no trace of difference, for the roots, leaves, and mode of fructification agree with F. siliquosus; and, though it seems to have escaped the observation of the author of the Nereis, I find, upon dissecting the vesicles of a specimen given me by himself, that they are hollow within, and divided into compartments in a similar manner to those of that species. It is these which separate the present plant so clearly from every other, and which are evidently designed to serve the purpose of air-bladders, for keeping the frond in a state of buoyancy, though, for a long time, they were

considered the seat of the fructification; and botanists, comparing them to the pods of beans, expected, from analogy, to find the seeds within them. Many, even of the most accurate, were deceived by this conjecture; but, of the few that were not so, the indefatigable Micheli deserves particular mention; as it is but little known that, in a very scarce collection of admirable plates of marine plants and zoophytes, published by him, there is a figure of the present species, with its fructification completely delineated. It was long after the publication of F. siliquosus in E. B., that Mr. Stackhouse and myself, by mere accident, met with this work in Sir Joseph Bank's library, where, I believe, the only copy known to be in England is preserved; except one in the possession of Dr. Smith, which, through his friendship, is now before me. There is no letter-press; not even the name of each accompanies the figures, to which I have, nevertheless, sometimes referred, as they are so excellent, that if any botanist would undertake the re publication of them, he would do a real service to science. I am, however, wandering from my subject, upon which I have only to add, that I have a specimen of this plant given me by Mr. Bryer, of Weymouth, so singular, that it is sufficient to puzzle even an experienced observer; and, if often found so, deserves particular notice: it is, apparently, the side-shoot of a larger plant, but extends above a foot in length, composed of a very narrow, compressed stem, and long, thin, flat leaves, but little divided, without any appearance of their any where swelling into vesicles, or pods; scarcely half a line broad, and of almost the same breadth throughout all its parts. It is, I presume, to a somewhat similar appearance, that Messrs. Goodenough and Woodward refer in their observation, that "they have seen large plants of this Fucus thrown up without any approaches to fructification."—F. siliculosus Linn. of which, there are specimens in his Herbarium, is nearly related to this Fucus, but perfectly distinct, and unlike any other I ever saw.'

For the gratification of such of our botanical readers as may not see the work, we shall likewise insert the author's account of an addition to the catalogue of British Fuci:

'FUCUS FASCIA.

'F. fronde sub-coriaceâ simplici lineari utrinque attenuatâ undulatâ integrâ exstipitatâ.—Fl. Dan. t. 768.—Roth, Fl. Germ. iii. p. 449.—Roth, Cat. Bot. fasc. ii. p. 161.

On the north coast of Ireland, Mr. Browne.

Annual?

'Root a small, blackish disk, destitute of any tendency to become fibrous; fronds numerous, four or five inches long, and in their centers about four lines wide; so extremely narrow as to be almost filiform at the base, whence they gradually dilate, till they acquire a size which they preserve throughout, except that, on their approach to the summit, they again decrease, and end in sharp, acuminated apices. They have no appearance, even in the largest specimens, of any stipes of a different substance or form to the rest of the plant. The margins are every where quite entire; the frond exhibits in no part any symptoms of either veins or midrib; in habit it is much undulated,

and not unfrequently twisted in a spiral manner. Young shoots are of a greenish colour, and a membranaceous substance; those more advanced are coriaceous, and of a dark, dull, sub-opaque brown. The fructification, according to Dr. Roth, consists of small vesicles, immersed in the substance of the frond, scattered, but plentiful, marked on their surface with elevated mucifluous warts.

'A very considerable part of the preceding description is borrowed from Dr. Roth's admirable Flora Germanica, wherein is contained the only good account hitherto published of this rare Fucus, which that author and his friend Professor Mertens gathered abundantly near Eckwarden in Germany. It was first made known to the botanical world in the Flora Danica, and I have now the pleasure of adding it to the British Catalogue, on the authority of specimens collected on the north coast of Ireland by Mr. Browne, and obligingly communicated to me by that gentleman. He indeed considered, and had marked it an Ulva, to which genus, both from its texture and habit, there can be little doubt of its really belonging; though, never having myself seen it in a state of fructification, I think it best to leave it for the present in the situation where such excellent judges as Œder and Roth have placed it. The following is the species with which it has by far the closest affinity; but its smaller size and thicker substance, as well as its undulated mode of growth and want of stipes will distinguish it satisfactorily at first sight, and there is no other in the British Catalogue from which the specific character is not sufficient immediately to point out the difference. It must indeed be allowed that in habit and shape its connection is extremely great with Ulva compressa of Hudson, at least that variety of it made, in the Catalecta Botanica, a distinct species under the name of U. lanceolata; but the colour and texture of the two plants is very dissimilar, and, were any other mark wanting, it would only require to be observed that, though in general apparently flat, the leaf of U. lanceolata is in reality always tubular, and, by tearing off the lower part, and applying it to the mouth, will admit of distention like a bladder.'

Fucus natans, so very abundant in some foreign seas, is put down as a doubtful British native, and suggests some very ingenious and interesting remarks, which their length alone prevents us from quoting.

Fucus granulatus of Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward is rejected, on the supposition that it is only a variety of *barbatus*, and that the real *granulatus* is not a native of England. The *sedoides* of the same authors is considered as not differing from the *ovalis*.

'It is with extreme regret,' says Mr. T., 'that I differ from the learned and worthy authors of *Observations upon the British Fuci*, with regard to this beautiful species; and I beg it to be understood, that, though I adopt the opinion which my own observations on its place of growth, and all the specimens I have hitherto had an opportunity of examining, confirm, I submit my sentiments to the decision of those who

who are better judges than myself, with all due humility; by no means looking upon it as impossible, or even improbable, that a more enlarged view of the subject may induce me to alter them. At the same time, for my own justification, it is to be observed, that, in considering *F. sedoides* and *ovalis* the same, I tread in the steps of Mr. Hudson, whose acquaintance with the marine algæ was, unquestionably, so extensive, that the loss sustained by this branch of botany, from the destruction of his Herbarium, cannot be sufficiently lamented.'

The mention of this loss reminds us that dried specimens of sea-plants, though they may often mislead the incautious observer, are of real service to the experienced botanist. For this reason, we could have welcomed a few preliminary directions concerning the most approved methods of preparing them. In the event of a second edition, we would moreover recommend the insertion of the English names, for the accommodation of those who are unacquainted with the Latin language.

We cannot close this article without observing, that Mr. Turner's very intimate acquaintance with his subject, his diligence and patience of research, his happy talent for nice discrimination, and a degree of candour which has been rarely equalled, (never, we believe, surpassed in any piece of systematic writing,) lead us to form the highest expectations of the more extensive work on which he is engaged.

Art. III. *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border:* Consisting of Historical and Romantic Ballads, collected in the Southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date, founded upon local Tradition. 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards, or on fine Paper, 1l. 1s. Printed at Kelso, and sold in London by Cadell and Davies. 1802.

The dedication of these volumes to the Duke of Buccleuch is subscribed *Walter Scott;* and we have been informed that this gentleman belongs to the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, and is Deputy Sheriff of the county of Selkirk. The honours which he has bestowed on the rude lays of his marauding ancestors are, a handsome frontispiece, fine cream-coloured paper, the beautiful and recent type of a *border* press, a learned and polished introduction consisting of 110 pages, five numbers of appendix, and a laudable munificence of notes and commentaries. The public are also informed that Mr. Jamieson of Macclesfield is engaged in preparing another collection of Scottish ballads; and a third volume of the present work, here announced, has since appeared.

It is now in vain to allege that the illustration of the peculiarities of border manners, as they modified the feudal spirit of

the times, required not much expenditure of time or paper: or to express a wish that a few of the sweetest of the songs here exhibited had been comprized in a small volume, the editor's own poetical contributions and those of his friends in another, and that his minute discussions had been reserved for the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, or for separate dissertations. Some such distribution of his motley materials would, indeed, have better accommodated the general taste:—but it was decreed that Mr. Scott should publish these volumes, and that Reviewers should be doomed to read them.

In Racine's *Plaideurs*, an *avocat*, when called to state the case of damage sustained by a capon having trespassed on a neighbour's field, begins his pleading by the words—*Avant la création du monde;* when the judge, somewhat alarmed, requests that he would, at least, *pass to the deluge.* Mr. S. is not quite so unconscionable as Racine's *avocat;* though, by taking his departure from the God Terminus and the Emperor Severus, who were not particularly related to the *outlaw Murray* or *Johnie Armstrang*, he seems to think that a liberal latitude of chronology gives *éclat* to the commencement of a grand performance. From these Roman worthies, the editor deduces, through many modish pages, the history of the border districts, to the accession of James to the English crown.

A review of family feuds and barbarous inroads, though penned with elegance, can convey little of either instruction or pleasure to the bulk of readers. It may, however, be proper to remark, that the conterminous inhabitants of the two hostile nations not unfrequently cherished romantic sentiments of honour; and that humanity sometimes gilded with her mild beams the scenes of lawless outrage and devastation. The following trait beautifully illustrates this observation:

'The Earl [Douglas], grown old in exile, longed once more to see his native country, and vowed, that upon St. Magdalen's day, 1483, he would deposit his offering on the high altar at Lochmaben. Accompanied by the banished Earl of ALBANY, with his usual ill fortune, he entered Scotland. The borderers assembled to oppose him, and he suffered a final defeat at Burnswark, in Dumfries-shire. The aged Earl was taken in the fight, by a son of *Kirkpatrick* of Closeburn, one of his own vassals. A grant of lands had been offered for his person: *Carry me to the King*, said *Douglas* to *Kirkpatrick: thou art well entitled to profit by my misfortune, for thou wast true to me, while I was true to myself.* The young man wept bitterly, and offered to fly with the Earl into England. But *Douglas*, weary of exile, refused his proffered liberty, and only requested, that *Kirkpatrick* would not deliver him to the King till he had secured his own reward. *Kirkpatrick* did more: he stipulated for the personal safety of his old master. His generous intercession prevailed; and the last

of the *Douglasses* was permitted to die, in monastic seclusion, in the Abbey of Lindores.'

The historical ballads, which occupy the first volume, have either a pointed reference to real events, or have at least their foundation in the Scottish records. The exploits or the death of the heroes of the day were celebrated in the popular rhymes of the sixteenth century. Part of these rude compositions, it may fairly be presumed, has perished; part has been imperfectly transmitted by tradition; and a few have been, in some measure, preserved in writing. The shepherds and the pipers of the border hills appear to have been the depositaries of the traditionary songs. 'JOHN GRÆME, of Sowport, in Cumberland, commonly called *the Long Quaker*, a person of this latter description, is still alive; and several of the songs, now published, have been taken down from his recitation *.'

From such sources, the editor, in his early youth, collected most of his materials: but he tells us that

'He has been enabled, in many instances, to supply and correct the deficiencies of his own copies, from a collection of border songs, frequently referred to in the work, under the title of *Glenriddell's MS.* This was compiled from various sources by the late Mr. RIDDELL, of Glenriddell, a sedulous border antiquary; and, since his death, has become the property of Mr. JOLLIE, bookseller at Carlisle; to whose liberality the editor owes the use of it while preparing this work for the press. No liberties have been taken either with the recited or written copies of these ballads, farther than that, where they disagreed, the editor, in justice to the author, has uniformly preserved what seemed to him the best or most poetical reading of the passage. Such discrepancies must very frequently occur, wherever poetry is preserved by oral tradition; for the reciter, making it an uniform principle to proceed at all hazards, is very often, when his memory fails him, apt to substitute large portions from some other tale, altogether distinct from that which he has commenced. Besides, the prejudices of clans and of districts have occasioned variations in the mode of telling the same story. Some arrangement was also occasionally necessary to recover the rhyme, which was often, by the ignorance of the reciters, transposed, or thrown into the middle of the line. With these freedoms, which were essentially necessary to

'* This person is perhaps the last of our professed ballad reciters, and is now upwards of eighty years of age. He was by profession an itinerant cleaner of clocks and watches: but a stentorian voice, and a most tenacious memory, qualified him eminently for remembering accurately, and reciting with energy, the border gathering songs and tales of war. His memory is now much impaired by age; yet the number of verses which he can still pour forth, and the animation of his tone and gestures, form a most extraordinary contrast to his extreme feebleness of person, and dotage of mind.'

remove obvious corruptions, and fit the ballads for the press, the editor presents them to the public, under the complete assurance, that they carry with them the most indisputable marks of their authenticity.'

From these concessions, which are sufficiently candid, it is obvious that we cannot rely on the *absolute* integrity of any of the historical ballads, though some of them may approach nearer to their original structure than others. The editor mourns for the loss of compositions 'of such interest and antiquity,' *and refuses to be comforted, because they are not:* but really, unless the missing stanzas savoured less strongly of Sternhold and Hopkins than the solitary one to which he appeals, he must excuse us for withholding our compliments of condolence:

> "Edinburgh castle, town, and toure,
> God grant thou sink for sinne!
> And that even for the black dinoure,
> Erl Douglas gat therein."

The romantic ballads, which fill by far the largest portion of the second volume, being founded in legendary tales or marvellous adventures, had a less local range than the war or *raid* songs; and they have, consequently, been collected from various sources, particularly from a MS. communicated by Mrs. Brown of Falkland. In general, they have a more wild and pathetic complexion than those of the first class: but many of them appear to be degraded recitations of old metrical romances:

'The third class of ballads are announced to the public, as *Modern Imitations* of the ancient style of composition, in that department of poetry; and they are founded upon such traditions, as we may suppose in the elder times would have employed the harps of the minstrels. This kind of poetry has been supposed capable of uniting the vigorous numbers and wild fiction which occasionally charm us in the ancient ballad, with a greater equality of versification, and elegance of sentiment, than we can expect to find in the works of a rude age. But upon my ideas of the nature and difficulty of such imitations, I ought in prudence to be silent; *lest* I resemble the dwarf, who brought with him a standard to measure his own stature.'

They who are conversant in the history of Scottish poetry, and who have perused the present publication with the attention which we have done, will readily admit that the editor has given an undue and unnecessary extension to the term *minstrelsy*; that many of the articles in his collection bear no particular relation to his title; that a whole has sometimes been eked out of various materials; and that, in several instances, the language appears to have been arbitrarily softened,

or

or the poems composed at a period not very remote from the present. The accidental recovery of a strayed couplet, or two, will not always justify the republication of verses which have ceased to charm, when the event which they commemorate is forgotten, and the taste of the age calls for models more correct and refined. Of none of the supposed antient pieces, do we learn the names of the authors; and, as Mr. S. has devoted much of his time and attention to the investigation of the history of border poetry, we may infer that the names are not now to be obtained. As the editor discovered that the three beautiful stanzas, intitled the *Flowers of the Forest*, were the production of a lady of family in Roxburghshire, we are sorry that he has omitted the name. Of the second part of the same poem, we have this interesting notice:

'The following verses, adapted to the ancient air of the *Flowers of the Forest*, are, like the elegy which precedes them, the production of a lady. The late Mrs. *Cockburn*, daughter of *Rutherford* of Fairnalie, in Selkirkshire, and relict of Mr. *Cockburn* of Ormiston (whose father was Lord Chief Justice Clerk of Scotland), was the authoress. Mrs. *Cockburn* has been dead but a few years. Even at an age advanced beyond the usual bounds of humanity, she retained a play of imagination, and an activity of intellect, which must have been attractive and delightful in youth, but was almost præternatural at her period of life. Her active benevolence, keeping pace with her genius, rendered her equally an object of love and admiration. The editor, who knew her well, takes this opportunity of doing justice to his own feelings; and they are in unison with those of all who knew his regretted friend.'

Though Mr. S. has added two stanzas to the *Souters of Selkirk*, he has not specified the steps by which he was led to the discovery. It is somewhat singular that *shoon* in the first stanza should be converted into *sheen* in the second. The latter pronunciation, we have been told, still prevails among the vulgar in Aberdeenshire:—but were *both* forms of the word ever current in the southern counties of Scotland?

We have compared the anecdote mentioned by Spottiswoode with *the Laird of Ochiltree*, a ballad which has been so often published: but we do not perceive that intimate coincidence between them, which would induce us to believe that the former had suggested the latter.

In most of the older Scottish songs, whether of a serious or a playful cast, which have come under our observation, we have remarked two circumstances which chiefly contribute to their value:—namely, a rapidity of relation which hurries us into the midst of the principal transactions, without regard to incidents subordinate and collateral,—and the dramatic effect which

which is produced by exhibiting the parties as speakers in the scene. Various examples of both these striking characteristics occur in these volumes; and a few instances will also be found of the true pathetic, expressed in language the most simple and appropriate. Thus *Armstrang* takes an affectionate leave of his castle:

"Farewell! my bonny Gilnock-hall,
Where on Eske side thou standest stout!
Gif I had lived but seven years mair,
I wad hae gilt thee round about."

The description of a young hunter asleep, who was shortly to be murdered, is also conveyed in artless and touching language:

"As I came down by Merriemass,
And down amang the scroggs *,
The bonniest Childe that ever I saw,
Lay sleeping amang his dogs.

"The shirt that was upon his back,
Was o' the holland fine;
The doublet which was over that,
Was o' the lincome twine.

"The buttons that were on his sleeve,
Were o' the gowd sae gude;
The gude graie hounds he lay amang,
Their mouths were dyed wi' blude."

As a specimen of the simple and moving strains of the romantic class, we select *Annan Water*, which may be new to many of our readers, and is introduced by an interesting extract from the correspondence of a highly respectable writer:

'ANNAN WATER.

'NEVER BEFORE PUBLISHED.

'The following verses are the original words of the tune of "*Allan Water*," by which name the song is mentioned in RAMSAY'S *Tea-Table Miscellany*. The ballad is given from tradition; and it is said that a bridge, over the Annan, was built in consequence of the melancholy catastrophe which it narrates. By the *Gatehope Slack*, is perhaps meant the *Gate slack*, a pass in Annandale. The Annan, and the Frith of Solway, into which it falls, are the frequent scenes of tragical accidents. The editor trusts he *will* (shall) be pardoned for inserting the following awfully impressive account of such an event, contained in a letter from Dr. CURRIE, of Liverpool, by whose correspondence, while in the course of preparing these volumes for the press, he has been alike honoured and instructed. After stating that he had some recollection of the ballad which follows, the bio-

'* Stunted trees.'

grapher

grapher of BURNS proceeds thus: "I once in my early days heard, (for it was night, and I could not see) a traveller drowning; not in the Annan itself, but in the Frith of Solway, close by the mouth of that river. The influx of the tide had unhorsed him, in the night, as he was passing the sands from Cumberland. The west wind blew a tempest, and, according to the common expression, brought in the water *three foot a-breast.* The traveller got upon a standing net a little way from the shore. There he lashed himself to the post, shouting for half an hour for assistance—till the tide rose over his head! In the darkness of night, and amid the pauses of the hurricane, his voice, heard at intervals, was exquisitely mournful. No one could go to his assistance—no one knew where he was—the sound seemed to proceed from the spirit of the waters. But morning rose—the tide had ebbed—and the poor traveller was found lashed to the pole of the net, and bleaching in the wind."—

ANNAN WATER.

—"Annan water's wading deep,
And my love Annie's wondrous bonnie;
And I am laith she shud weet her feet,
Because I love her best of ony.

"Gar saddle me the bonny black;
Gar saddle sune, and make him ready:
For I will down the Gatehope-slack,
And all to see my bonny ladye."—

He has loupen on the bonny black,
He stirr'd him wi' the spur right sairly;
But, or he wan the Gatehope-slack,
I think the steed was wae and weary.

He has loupen on the bonnie gray,
He rade the right gate and the ready;
I trow he would neither stint nor stay,
For he was seeking his bonnie ladye.

The gray was a mare, and a right good mare;
But when she wan the Annan water,
She could na hae ridden a furlong mair,
Had a thousand merks been wadded * at her.

The side was stey, and the bottom deep,
Frae bank to brae the water pouring;
And the bonnie gray mare did sweat for fear,
For she heard the water kelpy roaring.

O he has pou'd aff his dapperpy † coat,
The silver buttons glanced bonny;
The waistcoat bursted aff his breast,
He was sae full of melancholy.

---

* *Wadded.*—Wagered. † *Quere.*—Cap-a-pee?"

He

'He has ta'en the ford at that stream tail;
I wot he swam both strong and steady;
But the stream was broad, and his strength did fail,
And he never saw his bonny ladye.

—"O wae betide the frush * saugh wand!
And wae betide the bush of briar!
It brake into my true love's hand,
When his strength did fail, and his limbs did tire.

"And wae betide ye, Annan water!
This night that ye are a drumlie river;
For over thee I'll build a bridge,
That ye never more true love may sever."—

To the last note, it may be proper to add, with all due deference to the editor, that we believe that *frush* (in some provinces of Scotland, at least) denotes a want of cohesion of parts; and, though not quite synonymous with *brittle*, it may often be rendered by the latter without any violation of meaning. In the present instance, this acceptation better accords with the sense of the context.—Here we must also beg leave to observe that Mr. Scott has not always been sufficiently careful to give the necessary explanation of provincial terms. *Gare*, *swapped*, *loun*, &c. will be unintelligible to most English readers, and should therefore have been translated in the margin.

It is seldom, however, that our patience is rewarded by melting strains; nor does either genius or elegance seem to have presided at the birth of most of the popular ditties which Mr. S. has so painfully accumulated.—What shall we say of the smoothness or delicacy of such lines as these,

"*And planted down palliones there to bide*
Wi' Sir George Hinrome of Schipsydehouse—
They counted us not worth a louse?"

Should it be alleged that none but a native of Scotland can feel and appreciate the beauties of his vernacular poems, we admit the assertion to a certain extent; and that much of the spirit and effect of an original composition may vanish in a translation:—but let us, for the sake of experiment, merely change the orthography and pronunciation of two stanzas taken at random, and see how much poetry will remain behind:

"Bid him meet me at Penmanscore,
And bring four in his company;
Five Earls shall come with myself;
Good reason I should honoured be.

---

* *Frush.*—Fresh.'

"And

"And, if he refuses to do that,
Bid him look for no good of me!
There shall never a Murray, after him,
Have land in Etrick forest free."

We strongly suspect that the old Scottish melodies are greatly superior to old Scottish poetry; and that, consequently, a combination of words, though very remote from the language of the muses, may excite pleasing emotions by recalling the air to which it is adapted. Recollection of the air may, in turn, induce that of local scenery, the playfulness of childhood, or the endearments of friendship; and thus a few verses, devoid of intrinsic excellence, may warm the bosom, or extort the tear of precious remembrances. That species of gratification, however, which originates in accidental associations, scarcely belongs to the cognizance of general criticism. The *Ranz des Vaches*, a tune which plunges a Swiss soldier into a lingering and sometimes a fatal reverie, is regarded by the Italian musician as beneath his contempt; and the sound of the bag-pipe, which gladdens the heart of our northern mountaineers, would scarcely be tolerated at Vauxhall.

Too many of the small pieces now before us are destitute of true poetic unction;—a want, for which nothing can compensate. To add to their general demerit, grammar is sometimes grossly sacrificed to rhyme, and the latter is more frequently totally disregarded. We know not in what districts of the island *wine* corresponds with *hame*, *ane* with *down*, *blude* with *dead*, &c. &c. &c. Neither are we enthusiastic admirers of the following war-hoop; though, if duly vociferated by the *Long Quaker* of Sowport, we are persuaded that it might produce the most repulsive consequences on the enemy, should he presume to set foot on the sands of Cumberland;

'THE FRAY OF SUPORT.

'Sleep'ry Sim, of the Lamb-hill,
And snoring Jock of Suport-mill,
Ye are baith right het and fou';—
But my wae wakens na you.
Last night I saw a sorry sight—
Nought left me, o' four and twenty gude ousen and ky,
My weel ridden gelding, and a white quey,
But a toom byre and a wide,
And the twelve nogs * on ilka side.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'* *Nogs.*—Stakes.'

'Weel

'Weel may ye ken
Last night I was right scarce o' men:
But Toppet Hob o' the Mains had guesten'd in my house by chance;
I set him to wear the fore-door wi' the speir, while I kept the back-door wi' the lance;
But they hae run him thro' the thick o' the thie, and broke his knee-pan,
And the mergh * o' his shin bane has run down on his spur leather whang—
He's lame while he lives, and where e'er he may gang.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'But Peenye, my gude son, is out at the Hagbut-head,
His e'en glittering for anger like a fierye gleed;
Crying—"Mak sure the nooks
Of Maky's-muir-crooks;
For the wily Scot takes by nooks, hooks, and crooks.
Gin we meet a' together in a-head the morn,
We'll be merry men."—
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'There's doughty Cuddy in the Heugh-head,
Thou was aye gude at a' need:
With thy brock skin bag at thy belt,
Ay ready to mak a puir man help.
Thou maun awa' out of the Calf-craigs,
(Where anes ye lost your ain twa naigs)
And there toom thy brock-skin bag.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' ta'en.

'Doughty Dan o' the Houlet Hirst,
Thou was aye gude at a birst:
Gude wi' a bow, and better wi' a speir,
The bauldest march man that e'er followed gear;
Come thou here.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'Rise, ye Carle Coopers, frae making o' kirns and tubs,
In the Nicol forest woods.
Your craft has na left the value of an oak rod—
But if you had had ony fear o' God,
Last night ye had na slept sae sound,
And let my gear be a' ta'en.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'Ah! lads, we'll fang them a' in a net,
For I hae a' the fords o' Liddel set—

* Mergh.—*Marrow.*'

The

The Dunkin, and the Door-loup,
The Willie-ford, and the Water-slack,
The Black-rack, and the Trout-dub o' Liddel;
There stands John Forster wi' five men at his back,
Wi' bufft coat and cap of steil:
Boo! ca' at them e'en, Jock;
That ford's sicker I wat weil.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' ta'en.

'Hoo! hoo! gar raise the Reid Souter, and Ringan's Wat,
Wi' a brod elshin and a wicker;
I wat weil they'll mak a ford sicker.
Sae whether they be Elliots or Armstrangs
Or rough riding Scots, or rude Johnstons,
Or whether they be frae the Tarras or Ewsdale,
They maun turn and fight, or try the deeps o' Liddel.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

—"Ah! but they will play ye another jigg,
For they will out at the big rig,
And thro' at Fargy Grame's gap."—
—"But I hae another wile for that:
For I hae little Will, and stalwart Wat,
And lang Aicky, in the Souter moor,
Wi' his sleuth dog sits in his watch right sure;
Shou'd the dog gie a bark,
He'll be out in his sark,
And die or won.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.

'Ha! boys—I see a party appearing—wha's yon?
Methinks it's the Captain of Bewcastle, and Jephtha's John,
Coming down by the foul steps of Catlowdie's loan—
They'll mak a' sicker, come which way they will.
Ha lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' ta'en.

'Captain Musgrave, and a' his band,
Are coming down by the Siller strand,
And the muckle town-bell o' Carlisle is rung:
My gear was a' weel won,
And before it's carried o'er the border, mony a man's gae down.
Fy lads! shout a' a' a' a' a'
My gear's a' gane.'

As the counterpart of the above, and as a specimen of the poems professedly modern, we copy a few stanzas of the third part of *Thomas the Rhymer*:

'Then forth he went; yet turned him oft
To view his ancient hall;

On

On the grey tower, in lustre soft,
The autumn moonbeams fall.

'And Leader's waves, like silver sheen,
Danced shimmering in the ray;
In deepening mass, at distance seen,
Broad Soltra's mountains lay.

—"Farewell, my father's ancient tower!
A long farewell," said he:
"The scene of pleasure, pomp, or power,
Thou never more shalt be.

"To Learmont's name no foot of earth
Shall here again belong;
And, on thy hospitable hearth,
The hare shall leave her young.

"Adieu! Adieu!" again he cried;
All as he turned him roun'—
—"Farewell to Leader's silver tide!
Farewell to Erceldoune!"—

'The hart and hind approached the place,
As lingering yet he stood;
And there, before Lord Douglas' face,
With them he cross'd the flood.

'Lord Douglas leaped on his berry-brown steed,
And spurr'd him the Leader o'er;
But, tho' he rode with lightning speed,
He never saw them more.

'Some sayd to hill, and some to glen;
Their wond'rous course had been;
But ne'er in haunts of living men
Again was Thomas seen.'

If we could make room, we should also present our readers with an animated ode on visiting Flodden-field, by Mr. J. Leyden. Of the few imitations of the antient ballads by this gentleman and the editor, we may safely affirm that, in correctness of language and smoothness of numbers, they far surpass their prototypes; and that they rather breathe the spirit of elegant English effusions, than of those coarse strains which indicate the once untutored state of Caledonia.

Though we cannot entirely approve the nature and extent of Mr. S.'s plan, yet the fidelity, taste, and learning, which he has manifested in the execution of it, induce us to cherish the hope that he will employ his pen on more important and useful subjects. Even from his present labours, indeed, the curious inquirer may derive some ingenious and entertaining information on several points connected with the antiquities and history of

of Great Britain. Prefixed to *the Young Tamlane* is an acute and philosophical dissertation on the *Fairies of popular superstition*; and the insertion of *Thomas the Rhymer* suggests some pertinent remarks on his reputed gift of prophecy.

Mr. Scott's style is, for the most part, clear, smooth, and correct: but sometimes it approaches to inflation, and sometimes betrays symptoms of a northern residence. The first two sentences of the Introduction are rather stately:

'From the remote period when the Roman Deity, *Terminus*, retired behind the ramparts of *Severus*, until the union of the kingdoms, the borders of Scotland formed the stage, upon which were presented the most memorable conflicts of two gallant nations. The inhabitants, at the commencement of this æra, formed the first wave of the torrent, which assaulted, and finally overwhelmed, the barriers of the Roman power in Britain.'

We are also told that 'Buccleuch and his band of cavalry were discovered, hanging, *like a thunder-cloud*, on the neighbouring hill:' but we have seen a band of cavalryon a neighbouring hill, and, to our organs, they exhibited no similitude to a thunder-cloud. Such expressions as the following must be placed to the account of Scotticisms; viz.: *misgave* for *failed*, *abstracted* and *abstraction* in the sense of *stolen* and *theft*, *occupied* THE *time* for *his* time, &c.

It is our intention to take notice of Vol. III. in a subsequent article.

ART. IV. *Fragments of Letters and other Papers*, written in different Parts of Europe, at Sea, and on the Asiatic and African Coasts, or Shores of the Mediterranean, at the Close of the eighteenth and Beginning of the nineteenth Century. By John Walker, M.D. 8vo. pp. 440. 7s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1802.

BOOKS of Travels have become so common, and consequently travellers of different kinds have been so frequently offered to our notice, that the discovery of a *non-descript* writer in this branch of literature is an object of attention. The worthy Author before us appears to be perfectly novel, at least in his method of writing; for a letter dated from Mahon or Malta, of his inditing, contains a description of Portsmouth or of Liverpool; he takes occasion, from some of the most striking events of the Egyptian expedition, to amuse his readers with the history of a breakfast, or an excursion to some of his Castles in the air; and the title of every letter seems contrived as a trap to ensnare a curiosity which he had determined never to gratify. So whimsically is this rambling humour of the good Doctor displayed, that we can only characterize it by the old phrase of looking one way and rowing another.

Many peculiarities in this Author's style, as well as in his habits of thinking and acting, may indeed be explained from his religious opinions. We learn, in the course of the book, that he belongs to the Society of Friends; and that he was induced to traverse part of the Ocean, and "to herd with the men in blue and the men in scarlet who smote the ungodly one," by the laudable desire of extending the benefits of the Vaccine Inoculation. There is so much philanthropy amid all his desultory discussions, that we are pleased with the dispositions of the Man, even when the Writer excites a smile.—As a proof of these assertions, we shall extract the thirtieth letter:

'At Sea, between Sicily and Malta; 6, xi, 1800.

'When I first declined attending dramatic exhibitions, a strong persuasion rested on my mind, that I had not a right to expend money on such indulgences, while poor people were to be found obliged to go to bed without any supper: there are many benevolent people, I believe, who go there principally with a view to help to spread a comfortable board for the actors. I am of opinion, that he who hires another to do what he would think degraded himself or his friends to perform, falls short, in such conduct, of the pure principle of truth. Who would be willing to have a sister treading the stage for the amusement of others? those who would not, do, in supporting the theatre, help to degrade, in their own estimation, the female sex, whose honour they ought to support. In the countries on the continent, at Paris particularly, where the different conditions of the people do not obtain for them such different measures of esteem or of disrespect, as in England; where the minstrels in the streets, like Homer of old, frequently sing the ballads of their own composing, and, surrounded by a concourse of almost every description of people, find some, perhaps, sufficiently *amateurs* to join them in the chorus: see the nurses hoisting the children to the tune of their song, and every surrounding and beholding countenance helping to keep up their spirits under their exertions, vocal and instrumental, by the smile which silently acknowledges merit, or the hearty laugh which does it loudly; if their song be not elegiac, producing the quiet attitude and composed look, or exciting the tear of compassion; in most of the instances, the minstrels, male or female, appearing the most *natty* (neat) figures in the whole assemblage. In such a country, where *tout le monde* runs after amusement, and every one cherishes and respects the ministers to their pleasures, he who has avoided the drama, through fear that the *dramatis personæ* were dishonoured, may be secretly enticed to the place where all the weaknesses of our nature are assailed; by the delusive exhibitions of every passion which can awake sympathy, impressive, though fictitious; and the most magical representations of almost every scene in real life. On the stage is heard the captivating echo of living manners; and the prolonged sounds of it 'melting away in a dying, dying fall,' by the representations of the days of other times. But the days of the years of the pilgrimage of human life are a few, and there are duties for every man to fulfil therein. On being invited to attend a dramatic performance, by a few

friends, in a private theatre in Paris, I acknowledged the kindness of the citizens who pressed me to attend, and who told me that the amusement was innocent, and perhaps added, that the moral of the piece was instructive. Without presuming to censure them for spending their time in such a way, I yet thought it right to inform them, that I did not feel clear in my mind to indulge myself in attending the exhibitions of people acting parts which were not their own.—But there was no falsity in it, seeing that no deception was either intended or attempted. Feeling as I did at the time, it would have been in me a departure from the strictness of truth, (however some may term it the straitness of a superstitious prejudice,) to have taken a seat in their theatre. Yet I attended lectures at the school of elocution at the Pantheon, where the pupils, from the different parts of the republic, repeated the dramatic speeches of William Tell and his associates, in order to give the lecturer an opportunity of pointing out to them any provincial peculiarities he might discover in their pronunciation; and on which, or such occasions, this *ci-devant prêtre* took the opportunity of treading upon the hierarchy, already thrown down, by acknowledging that 'the sentiment of immortality, *though* a doctrine of Christianism, was good.' But to return to the comedians aboard of the Endymion; though I retained, as I still do, the general sentiment of the impropriety of acting characters not our own, yet I was witness, in part, to the performances of the sailors. The road, between the mess-room and the deck, lay through the place where the audience was collected; and, in passing this place, I got rather jammed, once or twice, among the people, so as not to be able to get backwards or forwards for some time, without incommoding some of them; in walking decks I could not but hear, in part, how they were going on underneath, on the opposite side. Besides, with all my objections to promoting exhibitions of this kind, I may not consider the casting of an eye, the turning of an ear to them, when falling in the way of them unsought for, as at all promoting them; any more than I may consider my presence among the people engaged in fight, as increasing the battle. They know that I do not meddle with the instruments of death; and, while other passengers take their stations at the guns, they do not attempt to appoint me quarters; save that they sometimes tell me, that my services will be acceptable in the cockpit, where, if I could render any aid or relief to the wounded, I should certainly feel very happy. It is an idea, so strongly impressed on my mind, that it is always right to aid and comfort the weak and the weary, that were it in my power to give refreshment to the faint of the armies of that country of which I am a subject, and of that which is at war with it; even when they were marching to the battle against each other; even in the midst of the battle, when they were attempting to destroy each other; I would give to them refreshment, and to both of them equally. The act of fighting is one; that of refreshing the faint is another; and of a nature exactly opposite to it. In effecting the one, I do not hold myself accountable for the other; it is wholly opposed to the wish of my heart.'

The reflections contained in the succeeding passages are still more interesting, as they exhibit the impression communicated by scenes of danger to those who merely look on them:

'A vessel, supposed to be a prize, was seen coming from Algezeira, and chase was made, with a view to cut her off. She was fired at, at the distance of about two miles, and the ball struck the water very near her. The fire was repeated without effect, and she returned into port. A small boat was seen coming from the shore, and making toward some of the convoy to windward, with an intention, it was supposed, to board them. She gave up the attempt, and again made for the shore. A ball was fired at her, and went very near her; on which a man in the stern stood up and waved his hat, which excited a laugh on board of the Endymion. He was supposed to be a Frenchman, the boat hoisting a three-coloured flag. The forts on the hills, as well as on the lower grounds, fired at us as we passed along the shore. The balls thickened, and the sounds of explosions increased, as we approached Algezeira. During this time of alarm, I was indebted to the captain-passenger for putting his spy-glass into my hand, and pointing out to me the fine aqueduct, which brings water from the mountains to Algezeira. While I had a closer view of the architecture, by help of the glass, the object was large enough to be seen with the naked eye, and to fill it with that species of beauty which Hogarth calls magnitude or quantity, as well as with all the variety of form which the arch and its supporters, and what crowns them, exhibit—the long continuation of this, the elegant and regular repetition of those. Silent it stood—this magnificent piece of useful art, relieving in light from the sober tinted hills in the back ground—and seemed to me to flare reproof on the perversion of human intellect that I was then witness to, the most ingenious applications of it to the purposes of destruction. In the midst of all the fracas, it remained unmoved, while the death threatening vessels were in motion. It seemed to repose in peace, while flashes from the batteries, the sounds from the explosions of their guns, the hissing of their coming balls, their splashy falls in the water, and the bursting of their bombs in the air, gave a different character to these, as well as to the vessels vomitting lightning and smoke, and roaring, like thunder, in emitting their shots and shells. In the first attack on the gun-boats at Algezeira, from the slackening of the wind a calm was apprehended, and the Endymion passed on out of the reach of their fire. In the mean time, the vessels of the convoy were, on their arrival one after another, casting anchor at Gibraltar, while the inhabitants were regarding us, with anxious expectations, from all parts of the rock. The breeze springing up again, I had the mortification to see the Endymion tack about again, to renew the attack; and, by help of the spy-glass, I saw an immense number of men pulling at their oars, to bring their guns to bear upon us. I saw the balls making what children call 'ducks and drakes' upon the water. Some fell very near the gun-boats, perhaps splashed them, or flew over them, as their's splashed and flew over the Endymion. I hope, and believe also, that they all escaped as well as we did, who were not one of us hurt. From first to last, I suppose, the firing continued about a couple of hours; at least an officer told me so. It is not to be supposed that I, unaccustomed to such scenes, could form any accurate estimate of the time in which they were passing. The time passed in a way so irksome to me, it might have seemed to me as an age. On such occasions as these,

these, which I am afraid of seeing renewed very shortly, I have had an opportunity of making some observations on sights, sounds, and the progress of balls. I have seen the approach of balls, two at a time, as well as of shells, and observed that the report from a gun very far outstrips the ball in its course. This is a well-established doctrine in physics, but it is contrary to the common opinion:

'The mimic thunder of the deep-mouthed gun,
By lightning usher'd, and by death outrun.'

The sailors think, when they have heard the report of the enemy's gun, that the ball is passed, and feel as secure as we generally do when hearing thunder after the flash of the lightning; but I noticed, off Algezeira, that the ball came after the report, though not so long after as the report was after the flash; and that thus death was threatened through the eye and ear, before it could possibly reach us in shape of a ball. I could not be mistaken, for, I remember well, the alarm excited by the flash, was increased on hearing the explosion. I knew then that the ball might soon reach us, and if it did not catch my eye, I generally heard it whizzing near. How are the contrary notions to be reconciled with each other. It all depends upon the distance from the place of firing. Considering the direction of balls in their progress relatively to the earth, every projected ball, whose direction is not right up or down, describes a curve, formed by combination of the projectile force, with the earth's attraction. In that part of the curve, in which the ball is getting farther from the earth's centre, that is, until the time of its beginning to drop, its velocity will gradually diminish; moreover, the ball and the sound do not start fair, if I may so express it, in the race. The ball gets the forestart, and generally going quickest at first, it arrives, at a small distance, sooner than the report, which is not made till the ball is expelled from the piece, and on its way; but in a little time the sound overtakes the ball, and gets very speedily on before it.

'During the coming of a whizzing ball, I have observed a general seriousness of countenance, with silence; in its passing over the vessel, a smile; on its falling short, a laugh. To people not employed with something to engage the mind, it is very trying to be exposed to danger. They have time to fashion their fears into a thousand shapes. Some of them keep together, and talk, in a rather low voice, about indifferent matters; on subjects rather insipid than either serious or laughable. Others keep alone, and seem indifferent about what may happen. One is ashamed to appear frightened; at the same time, one is willing to get, as it were by accident, to the leeward of a mast or capstan, if the firing be to windward. In such situations one is apt to have the company of boys belonging to the vessel, if they can contrive any thing to do there. They seem to be in a great bustle about some little business or other; but they are, in fact, proving to the sympathising, and consequently discerning, passenger, that 'self-preservation is the first law of nature.' Others, from sentiment or habit, seem to have had this first sensation almost extinguished in them. Wholly engaged in the business and bustle of the battle, they have not time to think of the danger to which they are exposed, and, not suspecting fears in others, they do not discover the symptoms of

it, which are so readily detected by the sympathising, and consequently discerning, passenger. The Endymion at length tacked, and stood away for Gibraltar, relieving the timid from all their fears. Every vessel of the convoy was safe arrived within the mole, when she herself came to an anchor.'

We learn, with some regret, that the author was under the necessity of abstaining from the mess on board a man of war, because he would not uncover his head at table; and in consequence of this circumstance, he informs us that he found room in his clothes, and time for vaccination. We must confess that the conduct of all parties in this business appears to be blameable.

In a subsequent letter, we meet with a curious comparison between Mahomet and George Fox, which we little expected from Dr. Walker's pen:

'I contemplate with astonishment what an obscure leader of a sect may be the means of effecting in the world. Let the individual observe the fact and have respect to his words and ways, for he knows not what they may lead to; let him come out from the 'swinish multitude,' (expression, however rude, most characteristic of a mass of people led about by every vagary of what is called fashion), and possess a character of his own; let him lose respect for public opinion, seeing it is unstable and capricious. Mahomet and George Fox, whatever contrasts to each other, have both been accounted leaders of sects, and both seem to have borne, in the beginning, an heroic testimony against the superstitions of their day. The intrepid Arab of Medina left his care of camels, and spread his faith, by war and conquest, from the shores of the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic; the simple shepherd of Drayton, in Leicestershire, left his dealing in wool, and seemed to bear a most active part in gathering hundreds and thousands together into an organized system, where there is a profession of a renunciation both of hierarchy and war, in this world of almost universal hostility and superstition. The former seems to have imposed his Koran equally by fraud and violence on a large portion of mankind; the latter referred the people to the monitor within, '*ce rayon de la Divinité*,' as to the eternal word; but his judgment appears to have been imposed on, a little, by the fanaticism of the day in which he lived, and even by the blandishments of the sect which he seemed to have been so instrumental in gathering together.'

We admire the candour of the concluding clause, the truth of which must be acknowleged by those who have read the curious Life of George Fox.

The spirit of opposition to common forms rises again in the 69th letter; and the sight of iron spikes seems to irritate the author as much as our steeple-houses provoked the founder of his sect. After having expressed his disapprobation of the practice of putting spikes behind a carriage, to prevent persons from getting up to ride, he thus continues:

'I have

'I have seen spikes on the top of that kind of a grated fender which is intended for keeping children from the fire, but it was not in a nursery; no, it was in a countinghouse in Liverpool, the neatest and most extensive I ever saw. Being asked, in presence of the merchant, how I liked the place, 'It is all very beautiful and elegant, except the fender, which has a horrible appearance in my eye, and might produce an ugly accident.' It had been imagined in the true *esprit de calcul.* It was to prevent the clerks from sitting down and idling on it, to take away the temptation of their staying too long at the fire.

'Let me mention another instance or two of the adoption of spikes, death-threatening spikes, and then we may return to the convent. There is a Quaker meetinghouse in a western part of England, and over the gate which leads into the yard, situated between the house and the street, iron spikes are fixed up to prevent any one from getting over. If no such things were there, it is not at all likely that any body would attempt to scale the wall. Long forms, or empty seats, do not offer any temptation; if the doors were left open, I do not think any body would run away with them. For a Quaker, who refuses to take up the sword in the defence of his person, his family, or friends, to set up iron spikes for the purpose of defending the stuff which he may have accumulated, is extremely uncomely, and perfectly inconsistent with his peaceful profession. If he be not prepared to feel himself satisfied on finding impaled in the morning the presumptuous wretch who had dared to attempt to clamber over them in the night, he set them up before he had fully considered the nature of his act, and when he has considered it aright he will take them down again, together with every piece of broken glass that he may have had plaistered upon his walls, and even the torturing traps, and poisonous baits, which he may have unfeelingly laid to catch the animals that annoy him, and to inflict on them a rankling wound, which shall slowly, yet certainly and cruelly, sap the springs of that life which they were only attempting to support and enjoy. Why did the meeting at Cirencester permit any of its members to deform their meeting-place with iron spikes? We have a right to consider the tolerated inconsistency as their own act. What is done in private houses, meetings cannot be so fully accountable for; and it would be useless in me to attempt to recommend to the mere worldlings of your society to put away their man traps and spring-guns, or the less treacherous instruments of death, blunderbusses, pistols, and swords. There may be some excuse for keeping a watch-dog, as he may alarm the peaceable family on the approach of thieves, and put them upon doubly securing the fastenings of their doors and windows; but I remember, on once crossing a merchant's yard, who was one of your elders, in company with his son, we were assailed by a very noisy little animal of this kind, on which the young friend turning to me, with a smile, rather archly observed, 'these animals are literally the arms of flesh.'

'I have known a Quaker's country house to pass, by purchase, into the possession of a judge, accustomed to pass sentence of death on unhappy criminals, many times throughout the year. The Re-

corder was not content with the height of the walls; he reared them higher, and topped them with spikes. The fair mansion was almost hid from the view of the traveller passing along the road; the prospect from the house was equally hurt; but the unnecessary fears of the judge might be apologised for in his peculiar manner of life; his dreams might be disturbed by the confused recollection on his bed of what he heard pass in the court.'

A few pages afterward, the Doctor presents us with a tale of real woe, in 'the instance of suffering to which he was witness in Nottingham gaol, in 1793:'

'I there saw two women, who had been married after the antient and simple manner of the Quakers, without clerical interference. After marriage, they were cited by their maiden names to appear before the ecclesiastical court; and these poor simple women thought it would be like a renunciation of their marriage to answer such citation. 'Being married,' said they, 'we have lost our maiden names, and can only acknowledge that of our husbands.' For not appearing on the citation, they were excommunicated and lodged in gaol. At the time I saw them, they had been about seven years in confinement. I do not remember to have heard that they are yet released; so that I believe they have consumed more than ten tedious years within the walls of a British prison. Others they have seen led out to liberty, to exile, or to death, while they have, themselves, the poor sufferers, continued to shed unavailing tears. What would become of the survivor if the older should die? That relief which I saw the younger obtain by weeping, in relating her tale of woe, might, perhaps, be withheld from her. In silent and solitary grief their source might be dried up.'

This volume presents a variety of entertaining matter, combined with sensible remarks: but it is more particularly to be regarded as a curiosity in literature, from the picture which it exhibits of a mind naturally active and ingenuous, struggling with an attachment to prejudices and peculiarities, many of which indeed originate in amiable motives, but the generality of which become more and more singular, in proportion to the advances made in knowlege and refinement by society at large.

ART. V. *An Essay on Abstinence from Animal Food, as a moral Duty.* By Joseph Ritson. 8vo. pp. 236. 5s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1802.

THE scruples of ingenuous minds are always intitled to attention, even when they are not supported by the strongest arguments. Those zealous adherents to the purity of the Sabbath, in some parts of Scotland, who will not permit a joint of meat to be roasted, a bed to be made, nor a wig to be powdered, on Sunday, are commendable in their intentions; and equally respectable was the Jewish Sect which, aiming at sanctity more than

than human, prohibited its votaries from evacuating the contents of the *primæ viæ* during their Sabbath. Bayle has ungraciously diverted himself with imagining the contorsions and grimaces to which a devotee of this kind must have been subjected, till the hour of relief arrived; and we can easily conceive that a pupil of Mr. Ritson must be exposed also to much trouble in his progress towards Pythagorean perfection, till he acquires a philosophic hatred of roast beef, and looks with fraternal commiseration on the slaughtered remains of a calf or a goose. The hardest part of his task, however, we imagine, would consist in reading Mr. Ritson's book with sufficient gravity; the matter, style, and orthography of which have frequently frustrated our most serious intentions during the perusal.

The first chapter treats 'of man;' and here the author seems to consider it as proved beyond dispute, that the present world has existed from all eternity, and that men and other animals have been spontaneously produced. He is even obliging enough to inform us, that man may be arranged under the monkey-kind: to which choice opinion we shall only reply, "your humble servants, sir; take your *own station* where it befits you." We are sorry, however, to be led to remark that atheism is inculcated at present with singular industry; in verse and in prose, in jest and in earnest. We shall never fail to detect and expose it under all its shapes.

It seems to be the aim of Mr. Ritson to depreciate the human species to a very low rank among animated beings; and really he has exerted his best endeavours to satirize the talent of reasoning, in the course of his discussion. To justify this opinion, we shall extract the concluding part of the first chapter:

'For man to have a just and perspicuous idea of the bountys of nature, he should visit hospitals, and not churches. Of these bountys we are supply'd by the divine Milton with an ample and shocking catalogue, as exhibited to Adam by the favourite archangel of the allmighty power, soon after the creation; to convince him of the hapyness provideed for himself and his posterity, which was to replenish the world.

——— "Immediately a place
Before his eyes appear'd, sad, noisom, dark,
A lazar-house it seem'd; wherein were lay'd
Numbers of all disease'd: all maladys
Of ghastly spasm, or racking torture, qualms,
Of heart-sick agony, all feverous kinds,
Convulsions, epilepsys, fierce catarrhs,
Intestine stone, and ulcer, cholick pangs,
Daemoniack phrenzy, moping melancholy,

And

And moon-struck madness, pineing atrophy,
Marasmus, and wide-wasteing pestilence,
Dropsies and asthmas, and joint-racking rheums."

'The onely mode in which man or brute can be useful or hapy, with respect either to the generality or to the individual, is to be just, mild, mercyful, benevolent, humane, or, at least, innocent or harmless, whether such qualitys be natural or not; but if the present system of murder, bloodshed, cruelty, malignance, and mischief, should continue, it would be better that such diabolical monsters should cease to exist.'

After this misanthropic declamation, the author proceeds to shew that animal food is not natural to man. On this subject he has collected some opinions, but no proofs. Had he extended his anatomical and physiological inquiries beyond the very few authors whom he has mentioned, he would have found that the best anatomists consider the structure of the human digestive organs as adapted both to animal and vegetable food:—unless, in this instance, as respecting the origin of the human race, he should choose to support the doctrines of Martinus Scriblerus; whom yet we do not observe among his authorities.

In the third chapter, Mr. Ritson attempts to prove that animal food is *not necessary*. We remark here, first, great ignorance of the true theory of digestion, his only references on this subject being to Dr. Cheyne and Dr. Arbuthnot, as if Spallanzani and other late philosophers had never existed: secondly, that the proofs here offered tend to shew that *all* kinds of food are unnecessary. We shall have occasion to observe, hereafter, that this ought to have been the author's thesis, if he had understood his own argument.

Allons! in the next chapter, animal food is said to be the cause of cruelty and ferocity. Here the author forgets that some vegetable productions, such as wine, beer, and spirits, are liable to the same accusation. We learn, in the course of this work, that Mr. R. has abstained from animal food during many years, yet his lucubrations are not entirely purified from ill-humour and cruelty to other writers. Is there no cruelty, then, but in preparations for cookery? Is an ox intitled to more tenderness than a poet, a scholar, or an historian? We do not admire this partial and perverse benevolence, which fears to inflict a momentary pain on a quadruped or a fish, but which would not hesitate, in prosecuting an argument, to wound permanently the feelings of a highly cultivated mind. This is indeed monkey philosophy; and the reflection on Providence in the note (†), p. 99, has the appearance of being more mischievously than humanely directed.

In

In the sixth chapter, the origin of human sacrifices is attributed to the desire of animal food. This is a weak point, and we think that it is by no means made out. Revenge and superstition were more probably the causes of this horrible custom. —Mr. Ritson has laboured, in this and the succeeding chapters, to prove that the practice of eating human flesh has been usual among many nations; and on this subject his misanthropy is conspicuous; for, besides admitting questionable authorities, he has assumed particular and extraordinary incidents for general practices, as if an historian were to infer, from the stories of the cruelties committed on the bodies of Marechal D'Ancre, the Admiral Coligni, and the De Witts, that the French and Dutch nations were habitually man-eaters. Indeed, Mr. R. is disposed, apparently, to conclude, from instances of individual ferocity or maniacal savageness, that cannibalism not only has prevailed in France and other neighbouring countries, but that it *was not extinct at a very late period**, either in France or England. To this very liberal opinion, we shall only reply in the words of Malherbe, when Regnier recited some verses to him, in which he represented France as rising into the air to return thanks for one of Henry IV.'s victories; '*Though this must have been in our time, we do not remember it.*'

The chapter intitled '*Animal Food pernicious*,' offers fresh instances of the author's ignorance of facts essential to his subject. He imputes the number of deaths in London among children under two years of age, to the untimely and unnatural use of animal food: but the truth is that very few children are permitted to use animal food so early, and that this premature mortality is imputable to dentition, convulsive disorders arising from acidity in the stomach, and other complaints totally unconnected with indulgence in animal food.—Indeed, when we reflect that the nutritious part both of animal and vegetable food (the gluten) appears from chemical analysis to be identical, every physiological objection to animal food must vanish, as far as it respects quality; and the question is reduced to the consideration of quantity, respecting which writers on diet have always been sufficiently scrupulous. In truth, the author's exceptions against animal food are founded on a mere want of philosophical accuracy. He detests the murder of animals for the purposes of cookery; yet he recommends the murder of vegetables for the same purposes. In what do animals and vegetables differ, but in an arbitrary term of distinction? The native rights of a cabbage are as defensible as those of a cow; and, if Mr. Ritson's premises be granted, the con-

* PP. 130, 132, & seq.

clusion

clusion is inevitable, that we ought to abstain from food altogether. We observed, indeed, in the early part of the book, a passage which looks towards this notable inference:

'Whether it be possible for man, by any mean, either of temperance, medicine, or morality, to subsist without any, or, at least, with a comparatively insignificant quantity of food, seems uncertain; for, though the famous *elixir vitae* of the alchemists, (which, by supplying the successive waste of the matter and spirit of the human body, was calculateëd to render it perpetual,) so long sought, has not yet been discover'd, it is not at all impossible, that, in a more enlighten'd age, and by the advancement of science, or some fortunate experiment, this invaluable medicine may be one day hit upon, though not, it may be, within a very speedy period; it should be recollected, at the same time, that there are several instanceës, recorded by veracious writeërs, of persons who have sustain'd exceedingly long fasts. Not to mention Simeon Stilites, who subsisted forty days, at a time, without food, in as much as his appetite is generally suppose'd, at least by the pious believeër, to have been duely temper'd by divine miracle, we are not at a loss, however, for more recent and authentick examples.'

Milk, too, which Mr. Ritson so strongly recommends as food, is an animal production; and it cannot be procured in sufficient quantities for the use of man, without prodigious injustice to the author's clients, the sucking calves, asses, and goats. It must farther be considered that, in devouring vegetable individuals, whether cooked or not, millions of insects, and of their *ova*, must necessarily be destroyed. Now if Mr. R. be right in the following note, we do not see how he can defend his consistency in proposing the substitution of vegetable for animal food:

'It is by no means probable or consistent that the vermin or minute animals (exclusive of worms) which nature has appropriateëd to particular beasts, birds, and fishes, and of which no less than three or four distinct species are peculiar to man, were intentionally place'd in those respective situations merely to be destroy'd by the creatures upon which they were so destine'd to feed. If god made *man*, or there be any *intention* in *nature*, the life of the *louse*, which is as natural to him as his frame of body, is equally sacred and inviolable with his own.'

What then shall be said of the bloody tyranny of a vegetable-feeder, who at one meal demolishes whole cities of insects, under the form of green-soup, cauliflower, or salad; or of him who, "with the self-same weapon too," "like Samson doth his millions slay?" Humanity like this reminds us of the project of Las Casas, who introduced the African slave-trade in order to spare the natives of America.

Having

Having thus bestowed sufficient consideration on the author's arguments, it remains that we should say something of his style. It is far from being elegant, though generally perspicuous; and it is occasionally antiquated, and sometimes vulgar. Thus, in a note or a passage quoted from Sir William Jones, Mr. R. observes, 'it is *mere fudge*;' which we beg leave to recommend as a motto for the next edition of his own volume. The book is also disfigured by an affected mode of spelling, which adds to its original barbarism. We cannot perceive the merit of writing *persuadëëd*, *writeër*, *hapen*, *accustomeing*, *filthie*, and *so forth*. Altogether, indeed, we suspect that neither Mr. Ritson's taste in eating, nor his literary *hash*, will meet with many admirers.

Art. VI. *The Life of Poggio Bracciolini*. By the Rev. William Shepherd. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

The attention to Italian Literature, which has been excited by the popular work of Mr. Roscoe, seems to have given rise to the volume now before us. Indeed the name of Poggio occurs so frequently among writers on Italian affairs in the fifteenth century, that many readers may be desirous of acquiring more particular information respecting his life than can be gleaned from general history; and he has been mentioned by the late Dr. Warton as a discoverer of antient manuscripts, in a manner that was calculated to promote inquiry. The public are therefore under considerable obligations to Mr. Shepherd, for the labour which he has bestowed on the memoirs of Poggio; and we have only to regret that the incidents, on which Mr. S.'s talents have been excited, had not proved more numerous and more diversified.

The prolixity of many of the Italian prose-writers imposes a severe task on every author who undertakes to compile facts or opinions from them. To transcribe would be endless; and to select is both difficult and tedious, when the bulk of their volumes and the imposing solemnity of their style are considered. Mr. Shepherd has acquitted himself, under these disadvantages, in a very respectable manner. His facts are chiefly taken from Recanati's Life of Poggio: but he has referred to many other sources of information respecting the history and manners of the age, as well as the immediate object of his biography.

As the leading circumstances of Poggio's Life have been too often repeated to render a view of them necessary here, we shall particularize only some of the more important passages.

Mr. Shepherd has translated, at full length, Poggio's description of the amusements of Baden, which are still noted by travellers, and which prove the joyous, unsuspecting character of the Germans.—A more interesting quotation from Poggio's correspondence is that which contains his account of the trial and execution of Jerome of Prague; and we shall extract the greater part of this letter, as a specimen both of Poggio's epistolary manner, and of Mr. Shepherd's style of translation:

"Many things having been alledged against the prisoner, as proofs of his entertaining heretical notions, and the council being of opinion, that the proof was sufficiently strong to warrant further investigation, it was ordered that he should publickly answer to every particular of the charge. He was accordingly brought before the council. But when he was called upon to give in his answers, he for a long time refused so to do; alledging, that he ought to be permitted to speak generally in his defence, before he replied to the false imputations of his adversaries. This indulgence was however denied him. Upon which, standing up in the midst of the assembly —"What gross injustice is this!" exclaimed he, "that though for the space of three hundred and forty days, which I have spent in filth and fetters, deprived of every comfort, in prisons situated at the most remote distances from each other, you have been continually listening to my adversaries and slanderers, you will not hear me for a single hour! The consequence of this is, that while on the one hand, every one's ears are open to them, and they have for so long a time been attempting to persuade you that I am a heretic, an enemy of the true faith, a persecutor of the clergy; and on the other hand, I am deprived of every opportunity of defending myself: you have prejudged my cause, and have in your own minds condemned me, before you could possibly become acquainted with my principles. But, says he, you are not Gods, but men, not immortals, but mortals, liable to error, and subject to imperfection. We are taught to believe that this assembly contains the light of the world, the prudent men of the earth. You ought therefore to be unremittingly careful not to do any thing rashly, foolishly, or unjustly. I indeed, who am pleading for my life, am a man of little consequence; nor do I say what I do say through anxiety for myself (for I am prepared to submit to the common lot of mortality)—but I am prompted by an earnest desire, that the collective wisdom of so many eminent men may not, in my person, violate the laws of justice. As to the injury done to myself, it is comparatively of trifling consequence; but the precedent will be pregnant with future mischief." These and many other observations he made with great eloquence; but he was interrupted by the murmurs and clamour of several of his auditors. It was decreed, that he should first answer to the charges exhibited against him, and afterwards have free liberty of speech. The heads of the accusation were accordingly read from the desk. When, after they had been proved by testimony, he was asked whether he had any remarks to make in his defence; it is incredible with what skill and judgment he put in his answers. He advanced nothing unbeco-

unbecoming a good man; and if his real sentiments agreed with his professions, he was so far from deserving to die, that his principles did not even give just ground for the slightest offence. He denied the whole impeachment, as a fiction invented by the malice of his enemies. Among others an article was read, which accused him of being a detractor of the apostolic see, an oppugner of the Roman pontiff, an enemy of the cardinals, a persecutor of prelates, and an adversary of the Christian clergy. When this charge was read, he arose, and stretching out his hands, he said in a pathetic tone of voice, "Fathers! to whom shall I have recourse for succour? Whose assistance shall I implore? Unto whom shall I appeal, in protestation of my innocence?—Unto you?—But these my persecutors have prejudiced your minds against me, by declaring that I entertain hostility against all my judges. Thus have they artfully endeavoured, if they cannot reach me by their imputations of error, so to excite your fears, that you may be induced to seize any plausible pretext to destroy your common enemy, such as they most falsely represent me to be. Thus, if you give credit to their assertion, all my hopes of safety are lost." He caused many to smart by the keenness of his wit, and the bitterness of his reproaches. Melancholy as the occasion was, he frequently excited laughter, by turning to ridicule the imputations of his adversaries. When he was asked, what were his sentiments concerning the sacrament, he replied, that it was by nature bread; but that at the time of consecration, and afterwards, it was the true body of Christ, &c. according to the strictest orthodoxy. Then some one said, but it is reported that you have maintained, that there remains bread after consecration—True, said Jerome, there remains bread at the baker's. When one of the order of preaching friars was railing against him with uncommon asperity, he said to him—Hold thy peace, hypocrite. When another swore by his conscience, this, said he, is a very safe mode of deceiving. One man, who was particularly inveterate against him, he never addressed but by the title of ass or dog. As, on account of the number and importance of the articles exhibited against him, the cause could not be determined at that sitting, the court was adjourned to another day, on which the proofs of each article of impeachment were read over, and confirmed by more witnesses. Then he arose and said, "Since you have attended so diligently to my adversaries, I have a right to demand that you should also hear me with patience." Though many violently objected to this demand, it was at length conceded to him that he should be heard in his defence. He then began by solemnly praying to God, so to influence his mind, and so to inspire his speech, that he might be enabled to plead to the advantage and salvation of his soul. He then proceeded thus—"I know, most learned judges, that many excellent men have been most unworthily dealt with, overborne by false witnesses, and condemned by the most unjust judgments." Illustrating this position by particular instances, he began with Socrates, who was unjustly condemned by his countrymen, and who could not be persuaded by the dread of the most formidable evils, imprisonment and death, to avail himself of an opportunity which was presented to him of escaping out of custody.

He then proceeded to mention the captivity of Plato, the torments endured by Anaxagoras and Zeno, and the unjust condemnations of many other gentiles—the banishment of Rutilius, the unmerited death of Boetius, and of others mentioned in the writings of that author. He then passed on to the instances which are recorded in the Jewish history—and in the first place, he observed, that Moses, the deliverer and legislator of the Jews, was frequently calumniated by his own countrymen, as a seducer and contemner of the people. He also instanced Joseph, who was sold to slavery, in consequence of the envy of his brethren, and afterwards imprisoned under a groundless suspicion of incontinence. Besides these, he enumerated Isaiah, Daniel, and almost all the prophets, who were calumniated and persecuted, as despisers of God and sowers of sedition. He also alluded to the trial of Susannah, and of many others, who, notwithstanding the integrity of their lives, perished by unjust sentences. Coming down to the time of John the Baptist and our Saviour, he observed, that all are agreed that they were unjustly condemned, upon false charges, supported by false witnesses. He next quoted the case of Stephen, who was put to death by the priests; and reminded the assembly that all the apostles were condemned to die, as seditious movers of the people, contemners of the gods, and workers of iniquity. He maintained that it was a scandalous thing that one priest should be unjustly condemned by another; that it was still more scandalous, that a college of priests should be guilty of this crime; and that it was most scandalous of all, that it should be perpetrated by a general council. Nevertheless he proved from history that these circumstances had actually occurred. Upon these topics he enlarged in so impressive a manner, that every body listened to him with fixed attention. But as the weight of every cause rests upon the evidence by which it is supported, he proved, by various arguments, that no credit was due to the witnesses who deposed against him, more especially, as they were instigated to give evidence against him by hatred, malevolence, and envy. He then so satisfactorily detailed the causes of the hatred which he imputed to his prosecutors, that he almost convinced his judges of the reasonableness of his objections against their testimony. His observations were so weighty, that little credit would have been given to the depositions of the witnesses for the prosecution, in any other cause except in a trial for heresy. He moreover added, that he had voluntarily come to the council, in order to defend his injured character, and gave an account of his life and studies, which had been regulated by the laws of duty and of virtue. He remarked, that holy men of old were accustomed to discuss their differences of opinion in matters of belief, not with a view of impugning the faith, but of investigating the truth—that St. Augustine and St. Jerome had thus differed in opinion, and had upon some points even held contrary sentiments, without any suspicion of heresy. All the audience entertained hopes, that he would either clear himself by retracting the heresies which were objected to him, or supplicate pardon for his errors. But he maintained that he had not erred, and that therefore he had nothing to retract. He next began to praise John Huss,

Huss, who had been condemned to the flames, calling him a good, just, and holy man, a man who had suffered death in a righteous cause. He professed that he himself also was prepared to undergo the severest punishment with an undaunted and constant mind, declaring that he submitted to his enemies, and to witnesses who had testified such shameful falsehoods; who would however, on some future day, give an account of what they had said, to a God who could not be deceived. When Jerome made these declarations, the assembly was affected with the greatest sorrow; for every body wished, that a man of such extraordinary talents should repent of his errors and be saved. But he persisted in his sentiments, and seemed to court destruction. Dwelling on the praises of John Huss, he said, that he had entertained no principles hostile to the constitution of the holy church, and that he only bore testimony against the abuses of the clergy, and the pride and pomp of prelates: for that since the patrimony of the church was appropriated first to the poor, then to strangers, and lastly to the erection of churches, good men thought it highly improper that it should be lavished on harlots, entertainments, dogs, splendid garments, and other things unbecoming the religion of Christ. It may be mentioned as the greatest proof of Jerome's abilities, that though he was frequently interrupted by various noises, and was teased by some people who cavilled at his expressions, he replied to them all, and compelled them either to blush or to be silent. When the clamour incommoded him, he ceased speaking, and sometimes reproved those who disturbed him. He then continued his speech, begging and entreating them to suffer him to speak, since this was the last time they would hear him. He was never terrified by the murmurs of his adversaries, but uniformly maintained the firmness and intrepidity of his mind. It is a wonderful instance of the strength of his memory, that though he had been confined three hundred and forty days in a dark dungeon, where it was impossible for him to read, and where he must have daily suffered from the utmost anxiety of mind, yet he quoted so many learned writers in defence of his opinions, and supported his sentiments by the authority of so many doctors of the church, that any one would have been led to believe, that he had devoted all the time of his imprisonment to the peaceful and undisturbed study of philosophy. His voice was sweet, clear and sonorous; his action dignified, and well adapted either to express indignation, or to excite compassion, which however he neither asked or wished for. He stood undaunted and intrepid, not merely contemning, but like another Cato, longing for death. He was a man worthy to be had in everlasting remembrance. I do not commend him for entertaining sentiments hostile to the constitution of the church; but I admire his learning, his extensive knowledge, the suavity of his eloquence, and his ability in reply. But I am afraid that all these endowments were bestowed on him by nature, in order to effect his destruction. As he was allowed two days for repentance, several learned men, and amongst the rest the cardinal of Florence, visited him, with a view of persuading him to change his sentiments, and turn from the error of his ways. But as he pertinaciously persisted in his false notions, he was condemned as

guilty of heresy, and consigned to the flames. No stoic ever suffered death with such constancy of mind. When he arrived at the place of execution, he stripped himself of his garments, and knelt down before the stake, to which he was soon after tied with wet ropes and a chain. Then great pieces of wood, intermixed with straw, were piled as high as his breast. When fire was set to the pile, he began to sing a hymn, which was scarcely interrupted by the smoke and flame. I must not omit a striking circumstance, which shews the firmness of his mind. When the executioner was going to apply the fire behind him, in order that he might not see it, he said, come this way, and kindle it in my sight, for if I had been afraid of it, I should never have come to this place. Thus perished a man, in every respect exemplary, except in the erroneousness of his faith. I was a witness of his end, and observed every particular of its process. He may have been heretical in his notions, and obstinate in persevering in them, but he certainly died like a philosopher. I have rehearsed a long story, as I wished to employ my leisure, in relating a transaction which surpasses the events of ancient history. For neither did Mutius suffer his hand to be burnt so patiently as Jerome endured the burning of his whole body; nor did Socrates drink the hemlock as cheerfully as Jerome submitted to the fire."

The most remarkable events in Poggio's life, viz. the discovery of a perfect copy of Quintilian, and the assistance which he gave in recovering other antient manuscripts, are briefly related. The learned world has to lament that his activity and enterprize were not sufficiently encouraged by the reigning Princes of Europe: but the destruction of manuscripts in our own country, at a much later period, (that of the reformation,) leaves us no right to tax other nations with their supineness and neglect.

On the occasion of Poggio's visit to this country, Mr. Shepherd has presented us with a view of those causes which led to the earlier encouragement of the arts and sciences in Italy, and those which retained England in a state of comparative barbarism. Part of this account we shall transcribe:

'The neglect of the liberal arts which spread the gloom of barbarism over our ancestors of the fifteenth century, may perhaps be more justly ascribed to the operation of the feudal system. This primary cause prevented that excitation of the public mind, which is necessary to the successful cultivation of literature. The feudal system was a system of strict subordination, which prescribed to every member of the political community his particular rank and place, and surrounded him by a circle, beyond which he was forbidden to pass. In the spirit of this system, till the reign of Henry IV. no farmer or mechanic was permitted to send his children to school; and long after that period, a licence from his lord was necessary to enable a man of this description to educate a son for the church. Whilst the majority of the people were thus impeded in their approach to the fountains of knowledge, it was impossible for

learning to raise her drooping head. The feudal superiors, exalted by the accident of their birth to the enjoyment of power and plenty, had no motive to induce them to submit to the labour of study. The younger branches of noble families were early taught to depend upon their swords for subsistence; and the acquisition of learning was an object far beyond the scope of the oppressed and humble vassal.

'The influence of the feudal system in checking the progress of intellect will be more plainly visible if we consider the circumstances of Italy during the period in question. In that country the ambition of adventurers, and the extension of commerce, had broken the fetters of feudalism; and had enabled the bold and daring in every species of exertion, to rise to the pitch of consequence which their talents could vindicate. Hence the dormant powers of the human mind were roused, and the expansion of learning and the liberal arts was promoted. The equalizing tyranny of the petty princes who usurped the sovereignty of various cities of Lombardy, whilst it repressed the power of the aristocracy, called into life the abilities of all the orders of society. The precarious title by which these chieftains held their exalted stations, induced them to court popularity by freeing the mass of the people from invidious restraints. During the residence of the popes at Avignon, and during the continuance of the schism, the feeble rule exercised by the pontifical deputies over the ecclesiastical cities, enabled the inhabitants of those cities to defy the authority which endeavoured to confine their exertions within the limits of slavish subordination. The factions which disturbed the peace of the Italian republics, tended also in an eminent degree to call forth the full energy of abilities, which in other circumstances would have been buried in obscurity. Great talents are too frequently united with turbulence of spirit. In times when the order of society is inverted by the tumults of civil broils, while men of peaceful souls retire trembling from the conflict, he who is endued with the energy of genius, comes forth, conscious of his strength, and despising every danger, exults in the hope of vindicating his claim to promotion.'

Much incidental anecdote is introduced, respecting Poggio's literary correspondents, which has no direct relation to himself. The account of the silly quarrel between Leonardo Aretino and Niccolo Niccoli might have been spared; especially as it is not very happily detailed, and the extracts from Poggio's letters contain nothing worthy of notice. Horace has indeed said every thing that the subject requires:

> " *At pater ut nati, sic nos debemus amici,*
> *Si quod est vitium, non fastidire.* ——— "

In the note on p. 181, Mr. Shepherd does not seem to be aware that *Ortuinus Gratius* was a macaronic title devised for *Hardouin de Graez*, the antagonist of Erasmus and Ulric of Hutten, and one of the chief objects of Hutten's Satire, in the *Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum.*

Mr. S.'s observations on Poggio's account of some fanatics of his day are very judicious:

'He mentions, with due reprobation, a set of fanatical profligates, who propagating and acting upon the doctrine, that those who were in a state of grace were made perfect, and could not possibly commit sin, had lately debauched a considerable number of women in the city of Venice.

'In modern times, enthusiasts have the audacity, whilst they make a public acknowledgement of gross violations of the duties of morality, to proclaim their confidence, that their sins are forgiven, and to declare their firm persuasion, that whatever may be the complexion of their future conduct, they cannot forfeit the favour of the Almighty. Though it would be unjust to charge these men with an imitation of the actions of the sanctimonious Venetians, whose vile deeds are recorded by Poggio, certain it is, that their principles, if carried into practice, would grant a licence even to these flagrant acts of wickedness. Thus, in the wide circle of immorality, there is a point, where the extreme of enthusiasm and the extreme of libertinism meet together. When Reason is shaken from her throne, the passions make even Religion herself the promoter and the instrument of vice.'

The sixth chapter is almost entirely occupied with the quarrel of Poggio and Filelfo. We could have wished that this disgraceful contest had been thrown more into shade: but it is unfortunately one of the principal incidents of Poggio's life. A part of one of Filelfo's invectives in verse is tolerably well translated: but the length of the quotations on this subject is not compensated by their wit and elegance, though Mr. Shepherd has disguised their coarseness with more success than could have been expected. It must, indeed, occur to every reader of this book, that neither the intrigues of a pontifical secretary, nor the politics of a chancellor of Florence, can furnish adequate amusement for an age like ours, accustomed to contemplate some of the most awful events that ever interested mankind. The slight fluctuations of the Italian states are lost in the storms which threaten not Europe alone, but every part of the habitable globe.

In the course of the memoirs, Mr. Shepherd has introduced, in a very agreeable manner, an account of Poggio's different publications: in his criticisms on which, he might have derived considerable assistance from Strada's Prolusions, especially respecting the History of Florence.

Of the work best known in this country, the *Facetiæ*, we shall extract Mr. S.'s account, because it exhibits a more apt illustration of his style, on which we shall next have occasion to remark:

'This

'This work is highly interesting on account of the anecdotes which it contains of several eminent men, who flourished during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. In the course of its perusal, we find that many an humorous tale, which the modern jester narrates as the account of circumstances that occurred under his own observation, were of the number of those which caused the walls of the *Bugiale* to re-echo with laughter. Like all collections of the kind, the *Liber Facetiarum* contains, amongst a number of pieces of merit, some stories, in which we look in vain for the pungency of wit. When however we are inclined to condemn Poggio as guilty of the crime of chronicling a dull joke, we should remember, that *bons mots* frequently borrow their interest from aptness of introduction, and an humourous mode of delivery; and that though the spirit of a witticism, which enlivened the conversation of a Lusco or a Cincio, may evaporate when it is committed to paper, yet at the time when it was recorded by Poggio, it sported in his recollection with all the hilarity of its concomitant circumstances. But too many of the *Facetiæ* are liable to a more serious objection than that of dullness. It is a striking proof of the licentiousness of the times, that an apostolic secretary who enjoyed the friendship and esteem of the pontiff, should have published a number of stories which outrage the laws of decency, and put modesty to the blush; and that the dignitaries of the Roman hierarchy should have tolerated a book, various passages of which tend not merely to expose the ignorance and hypocrisy of individuals of the clerical profession, but to throw ridicule on the most sacred ceremonies of the Catholic church. In the selection of the *Facetiæ*, Poggio seems totally to have forgotten the wholesome advice which he had formerly bestowed upon Antonio Beccatelli. Recanati indeed endeavours to defend his fame, by suggesting the idea, that many of the most licentious stories were added to his collection by posterior writers; and he supports this opinion by asserting, that he has seen two manuscript copies of the *Facetiæ*; in which many of the obnoxious passages in question are not to be found. The validity of this defence is however rendered extremely questionable by the consideration of a fact, of which Recanati was probably ignorant, namely, that Lorenzo Valla, in the fourth book of his *Antidotus in Poggium*, which was published about the year 1452, not only impeaches the *Facetiæ* of blasphemy and indecency; but recites, by way of holding that work up to reprobation, the most scandalous stories which are now to be found in the whole collection.'

Of the literary claims of Pope Nicolas V., Mr. S. has scarcely said enough. He might truly be reckoned among the chief restorers of letters, and his merit was increased by the obstacles which he had to encounter.

After this general view of the present publication, it remains that we should speak more particularly of its style;—one of the great objects in professed compilations. It is clear and manly; free from inversions, and in general from affectation: but it is sometimes loaded with epithets, in the manner

of Gibbon, or with words sanctioned only by Johnson and his imitators. For much of this, however, we must blame the original matter. A redundant style, approaching to that of lapidary inscriptions, was cultivated by the writers of Latin, in the age of Poggio; and it was scarcely possible for his historian and translator to escape some degree of it: especially as our own language offers prevailing examples of similar faults. We should be glad to see a writer of memoirs in English spurn at the fetters with which prejudice has attempted to confine the language; and present us with a narrative original in its manner, and varying with its subject, without departing from our proper idiom. At present, the historical books composed in imitation of our more celebrated writers read like stiff translations. Mr. Shepherd has, indeed, enlivened his story by several extracts from Poggio's *Facetiæ*: but they do not well accord with the general gravity of the book.—Altogether, thinking thus favourably of Mr. Shepherd's performance, we shall be glad to meet him again, employed in some field more productive of a literary harvest.

ART. VII. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Charles Abbot*, Speaker of the House of Commons; containing an Inquiry into the most effectual Means of the Improvement of the Coasts and Western Isles of Scotland, and the Extension of the Fisheries. With a Letter from Dr. Anderson to the Author, on the same Subject. By Robert Fraser, Esq. 8vo. pp. 104. 3s. Nicol. 1803.

SUCH momentous considerations are presented to us in this pamphlet, that we should be insensible to the interests of our country, and deficient in public duty, if we were to notice them in a light and cursory manner, or were long to delay our report of them. The subject of the British and Irish Fisheries has not obtained that attention which its high importance demands. When we reflect on our insular situation, and on the vast extent of our coasts, we appear negligent of the bounties of Providence in deducing so small a portion of our nourishment from the ocean. Fish, instead of being a luxury, might be produced in such abundance in all our markets as to constitute half of our food; and the price of other provisions would then in course be materially lowered. The sea, which is our natural defence, might thus by judicious industry be made a source of great prosperity; as it offers the means of sustaining an enlarged population and of encouraging occupations in days of peace, which, as naval nurseries, would always furnish sailors to man our wooden bulwarks in times of war. Ought such great and obvious advantages to be neglected? Can the legislature,

legislature be more profitably employed, than in directing and aiding the efforts of the people on our coasts to cultivate the rich field which is spread before them "in the great waters?" Independently of these general views, certain local circumstances imperiously demand some interference in behalf of the British Fisheries. Emigrations, to a serious extent, are reported to occur in the Highlands and Western Isles of Scotland *; which, if we may credit the testimony of intelligent and experienced men, would be effectually prevented, were the individuals allowed, without restraint, to avail themselves of those blessings which the liberal hand of Nature has placed within their reach. A fatal idea seems to prevail, that the great strength of a state exists in its revenue; and that to take care of this branch is effectually to uphold the national prosperity. We term this a *fatal* idea, because it is an inversion of the natural order of things. Considerations of revenue ought always to be subordinate to those of national prosperity; and every government departs from its true interest, when it imposes and continues such taxes as paralyse the hand of industry, and lock up that wealth which Providence stands ready to diffuse. The object of Mr. Fraser, in this letter to the Speaker of the House of Commons, is to invite the legislature to adopt a more enlightened and benevolent line of conduct; especially with regard to the inhabitants of the Highlands and Western Isles of Scotland, who are restrained by the present salt-duties from reaping any benefit from the seas, though they abound in fish which would supply their own wants and furnish an important article of commerce. The facts which he has diligently collected, as well as the remarks which accompany them, are very striking and ought not to be disregarded.

Assuming it as an indisputable political maxim, that the true power and riches of a state depend on the number and industry of the people, and that the greatest evils must result from destroying the source of population or driving it to swell the power of foreign nations, Mr. Fraser proceeds to an examination of the present state of the Coasts and Western Isles of Scotland; and, as he seems to be well acquainted with the districts which he describes, we perused his details with attention and concern. His account commences with a view of the prevailing disposition to emigration, which in some parts is fast approaching to a complete depopulation; and with assigning the reasons which are urged to justify this resolution.

* It is said that 25,000 people are likely to leave these countries in the course of the present year, in order to transport themselves to America.

'It is not, they allege, to the want of fertility in the soil, it is not to the disadvantage of climate, it is not from the want of subsistence, that the inhabitants of these countries have determined to transport themselves to America; it is high rents, the want of leases, the want of security for their property and the fruits of their labour, to which their poverty, want of industry, and their discontents are uniformly ascribed; and added to these, the oppressive operation of the duties and regulations respecting salt.' —These reasons he regards as in a great measure founded; and therefore he calls on the land-owners to make a joint effort with Government, in order to redress and alleviate grievances which operate so fatally for the country. If proper steps are taken, the maritime parts of Scotland (he is confident) will with ease sustain a population increased ten-fold*. To the Fisheries, he looks for the principal means of supply. 'The Seven United Provinces, (he observes,) which are altogether not larger than Yorkshire, yet, from their fisheries alone, for which they are not nearly so well situated as the Highlands and Isles of Scotland, supported a population equal to three times the number of inhabitants in the whole of North Britain. So that in fact these maritime parts of Scotland, so far from being over-peopled, do not contain one-tenth part of the population which they are able, with proper industry, to support.' To justify his hypothesis respecting the importance of the Fisheries, he says, in another place,

'Were a careful examination made of the extended coasts of the British isles and of the seas adjacent, or those within easy reach of the industry of the inhabitants, not only would new sources of wealth arise in the discovery of new fishing-grounds, but many situations would be found for the construction of harbours, and for the formation of towns well adapted to carrying on the old, as well as these new fisheries†, to an extent almost unlimited. Many situations would also be found, which, at comparatively a small expense, might be rendered

* It is observed at p. 76. that, by the adoption of proper means, the number of people following a marine life in the United Kingdom may be augmented *twenty-fold*. Mr. F. is of opinion that, though Scotland be inferior to the Kingdom of Naples in point of fertility, it is capable, from the superior productiveness of its seas, of supporting an equal population. We cannot, however, accord with him in this sentiment. The climate of Naples calls for fewer wants, especially in the articles of clothing and fire, than that of Scotland, where the severity of the winter season demands much of both those requisites.

'† It is perfectly well known to numbers of gentlemen in the navy, that there is equal abundance of fish in the ocean surrounding the western coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, with that which is found in

rendered fit for stationing our fleets, and affording the most perfect protection to our trade and to our coasts.'

It is agreed by Dr. Anderson and Mr. Fraser, that *the total abolition of the salt duties* is a *sine quâ non* in giving due energy to the exertions of the inhabitants of the Scotish coasts. Both these gentlemen shew that the present restrictions operate in many instances as a complete prohibition on the fisheries; and examples are adduced to prove the melancholy effects of these duties:

'The herrings approach the coast in great shoals at particular seasons of the year, and are uncertain as to the time of their approach, and as to the time of their continuance; and although they are generally in greater or less plenty in some part or other of the coasts, yet they will sometimes not return to particular situations for several years together. From the waste on salt continued long in stores, from the difficulty of accounting for duty-free salt, there is scarcely any quantity of it on those coasts, unless where fish curers have erected red herring houses. But if these accounts and bonds were done away, salt, which can be purchased at the salt works at 4*d.* or 6*d.* per bushel, and imported into those countries for 10*d.* at most, would be laid up even by the lower class of fishers in small quantities, against the return of the herrings, and they would also have abundance for the purpose of curing the cod, ling, haddock, and other fish that are to be found every where on the coast, either by curing and drying these fish in the summer season, or by curing them wet in tubs or barrels in the winter.'

That it is a fact that the fishermen on the coast are in want of salt, the following incident recorded in a note, p. 49. will sufficiently manifest:

'In the autumn of 1791, (says Mr. F.) being on a voyage through these islands with the Earl of Breadalbane, we anchored in Loch Bay, where an establishment had been formed by the British Society, of which Lord Breadalbane was Deputy Governor. It was about the 23d of August. The herrings were in such abundance in the bay, that several hundred vessels could have been loaded with them, and the few boats that were on the coast could have caught any number. But they had no salt. His Lordship, wishing to examine the circumstances of the establishment, continued there for two days. The inhabitants went out and filled their boats with herrings; and coming

---

in the northern seas. The only reason that they are not pursued is, that the natives of the Highlands and isles of Scotland and Ireland cannot go out at a distance from their shores in their hookers and open boats, to take them. It would be very useful to employ some of the many excellent surveyors that are at present to be found in the navy, to lay down with exactness these fishing grounds. A small attempt in one instance may be seen in a work I printed last year, entitled Gleanings, respecting the Agriculture, Mines, and Fisheries of Ireland, published by G. and W. Nicol, Pall-Mall.' (See Rev. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 78.)

along

along side, offered us any quantity we pleased; the rest, after keeping a few for their families, they threw overboard. Lord B. was so much distressed to see them in want of salt, that he ordered all the salt in the ship, which amounted only to a cask or two, to be given to them, so that we really were in want of salt for the ship's use, and although we tried at every creek and bay we put into to get a very small quantity, we could find none until we got to Stornway.'

From a people so depressed by poverty, it is worse than absurd to think of drawing taxes. Before they become subject to fiscal imposts, they should be made capable of sustaining them. When men are brought by the fostering care of government to a state of competency and comfort, they may fairly be required to contribute by taxes to its support: but to endeavour to extend taxation to them before they are in circumstances to answer its demands, is in effect to oblige them to remain under the pressure of poverty, and to continue useless to the community. To prove how much the districts specified by Mr. F. may be ameliorated by the abolition of the salt-duties, he gives this account of the Isle of Man:

'To the Isle of Man, it appears that in the year 1799 there were 31,854 bushels of salt exported, and in the former year 37,982 bushels. This salt is made use of by the inhabitants, not only for curing fish to be sold, but for curing fish for their domestic use, and for all other purposes, without any restriction or account. The consequence of which is, that every man in that island endeavours to obtain a share in a boat, or in the nets, or becomes himself a fisherman, and in the beginning of the herring season he cures his share of the fish for his family, or if he has no share, purchases and cures a quantity which he calculates will be sufficient to supply his family for the year round. Having then his herrings, and trusting to his potatoe garden for its produce, he comforts himself with the prospect of a sufficient subsistence, and works cheerfully afterwards to catch fish, which he sells to the fish curers, merchants, and others, who come in great numbers to purchase herrings, to carry them to the adjacent coasts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.'—

'In the year 1765, the Isle of Man was annexed to the Crown, and the whole employment of the people in that island, consisting of a most extensive trade carried on from the importation of wines, brandies, East-India productions, articles for the slave-trade, and a thousand other kinds of goods, together with the occupations of packing and re-packing, warehousing and smuggling these goods to the adjacent shores of Great Britain and Ireland, was suddenly put an end to. Vast distress ensued; and although five thousand people emigrated from that island to Ireland, Scotland, and England, yet such was the distress of the remainder, that many actually died from want of necessaries, and Government were under the necessity of importing grain and flower for their subsistence.

'Next session, several acts of parliament were framed, allowing the inhabitants of that island to import a variety of articles of consumption

sumption under very small duties, and suffering their produce to be imported free of duty to Great Britain. But the great measure which produced an immediate and wonderful amelioration of their circumstances, was the *privilege* of IMPORTING SALT DUTY-FREE from England, not for *their fisheries* only, but for all *domestic purposes*.

'Encouraged by this indulgence, the inhabitants began instantly to apply to their fisheries, which had before been totally neglected. In the year 1769, the late Bishop Hildesly took an account of the number of the inhabitants in the island, which he found to amount to 17,500. In the year 1781, I had the honour to be appointed by the Treasury to make an enquiry into the state of the revenue and fisheries of that island. I found that at that period, without bounties on their boats, or the tonnage of their fishing smacks, or any premiums other than the free use of salt, they carried on a most extensive fishery, which employed 2500 seamen. In the absence of the herrings, the fishermen supplied the consumption of the island, in great abundance, with white fish, the agriculture was greatly increased, and the population consisted of 30,000 souls,* having nearly doubled the number of its inhabitants in fifteen years.

'It appears also that this prosperity has proceeded uninterrupted. By the evidence before the Committee of the House of Commons for the fisheries in 1798, it appears that the boats had increased both in number and size: instead of 10 and 12 tons, which used to be the average, they were then 16 and 22 tons burthen. Of these there were upwards of 350, carrying seven or eight men in each, besides from 40 to 50 fishing smacks of the burthen of from 20 to 50 tons each.† These boats and smacks employed upwards of 3000 seamen, which is equal to the number of men and boys employed in the whole of the Buss fishery of Scotland in the same period, supported at a bounty of upwards of 20,000l. per annum.‡

'It is further to be considered that the Isle of Man is only 32 miles in length by about 10 in breadth, and does not possess the advantages of the coasts and islands on the north-western parts of Scotland with regard to harbours and extensive inlets of the sea; neither does the adjacent sea possess fish equal in variety or abundance; nor can it be compared to many of these islands in extent of land capable of cultivation, nor perhaps in general fertility. The great prosperity of this island then is to be ascribed *chiefly to the free importation of salt.*'

To this statement, Mr. Fraser adds:

'If at the period when so great a change of circumstances took place in the Western Isles and Highlands of Scotland as that of the abolition of the feudal tenures, a similar indulgence had been extended to them, it cannot be doubted that a prosperity much greater would have taken place in those parts of Great Britain, inasmuch as they

'* During a residence in that island of seven or eight years previous to that period, there was scarcely a beggar to be seen. And in 1782-3, when the people in the Highlands and Isles were in a state of famine, there was great plenty and abundance in the Isle of Man.'

'† Report of 1798, p. 166.' '‡ Ibid. p. 211.'

are

are better situated for carrying on both the herring and the white fisheries with advantage.'

He therefore humbly submits to the consideration of Parliament, that

'*Leave be given* to bring in a bill to allow, for three years, the importation of salt duty-free, to be imported from Liverpool, or from the salt works on the eastern coast of Scotland, into the several ports of the counties of Argyle, Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney, and Shetland Isles, and that the persons so importing the same may be allowed to store the said salt in any way whatever, and that the persons buying the said salt may be allowed to use the same for curing fish, flesh, and other domestic purposes, without being liable to account for the same, and they shall have free liberty to dispose or sell any fish or flesh so cured, without being subject to any fees, accounts, or entries whatever.'

We are so thoroughly convinced of the national importance of extending our fisheries, that we would argue that it ought to be attempted even though it should for the present be attended with an evident loss to the revenue: but Mr. Fraser proves that the loss, which would be produced by the measures which he recommends, is too inconsiderable to be mentioned. That part of Scotland to which his remarks apply, coming under the denomination of the Highlands and the Western Isles, consists of the Counties of Argyle, Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney, and Shetland; and from these six counties, which include the whole of the Western Isles, and form an extent of territory equal to more than one-sixth of Great Britain, the net produce annually accruing from the duties on salt, on an average of ten years, amounted to no more than the sum of 1721. 6s.!!

With the removal, *altogether*, of the restraints and embarrassments arising from the duties on salt, Mr. Fraser unites a similar measure respecting the importation of coals; without which, any present *apparent* indulgence can be of no real benefit to the poor in these districts, because, though coals are allowed to be carried duty-free, the excise regulations inserted in the act render this permission nugatory. The subject is thus explained:

'The coal duty has indeed been abolished, but the master of the vessel is obliged, according to the forms of the Custom-house, to return a certificate that this coal has been landed according to the entry: this certificate must be made by a custom house officer. Therefore, instead of going along the coast, and selling a few barrels at one creek, and then proceeding to another, he must either go to where there is a custom house, or must wait until a custom house officer comes to see the vessel break bulk, and this officer it may be necessary to send for at the distance of 100 or 150 miles, and his expence, besides his fees, paid by the importer, which together may be more than

the

the value of the cargo, and operates as an effectual prohibition for the greatest part of the country, and prevents any considerable advantage from this indulgence to the lower class of people, for whose relief this regulation was chiefly intended.'

Dr. Anderson relates a curious circumstance in his observations on this subject:

'You know that many years ago the duty on coals carried coastways in Scotland was taken off, and that one of the chief arguments for carrying that measure into effect, was the relief that it would afford to the poor Highlanders respecting fuel; yet it is a fact, that since that time representations of the misery of the people in this respect have been repeatedly made, and it has been fully ascertained, that in several cases they have been reduced to the necessity of stripping the thatch from their houses, to procure a small supply of miserable fuel, and thus exposing themselves to the danger of perishing from the inclemency of the weather, because no coals, *on account of the custom-house clearances*, could possibly be sent to them. The unavoidable certainty that this must be the case was pointed out, by me, to Sir William Pulteney, some months before the bill was brought into Parliament, and a clause suggested to him by which it might have been effectually obviated; but though it was approved of by that gentleman, and every other person to whom it was explained, the clause was omitted in the bill; and these people are of course, till the present hour, subjected to this evil, of which they have so long complained. It is in this way the inhabitants of those unhappy regions have been often tantalised by the enactment of laws which have been professedly made for the humane purpose of cherishing them, but which have not in fact contributed in any way to alleviate their distress.'

If such be the fact, can we wonder at emigration?

Mr. Fraser also recommends that encouragement be given to the proprietors of land to erect towns on their estates; and that Government shall appoint Commissioners for the purpose of assisting fishermen, by forming stations on the coasts and islands convenient for them, and by loans of small sums of money. He reprobates the expenditure of vast sums on futile projects; in which light he considers the proposed *Caledonian Canal*, designed to extend from Inverness to Fort William, and to be made large enough for frigates to pass, in order to obviate the necessity of navigating the Pentland Firth. Though 20,000l. have been voted for beginning this canal, Mr. F. repeats his objections, which seem to us to have some weight:

'Amongst other objections to the expenditure at present of public money on this undertaking, it has not been duly considered, that distress and losses in shipping navigating the Pentland Firth chiefly happen in the winter months; and *that in these months*, although Loch Ness and the other lochs with which the Caledonian Canal is to communicate do not freeze from their great depth of water, yet most certainly the branches of the canal joining these lochs and the sea

will be liable to be frozen during the greatest part of these months in which the passage of the Pentland Firth is accompanied by the dangers represented to the Committee; and consequently, that ships navigating these seas will not generally resort to a navigation subject to such an interruption, in preference to attempting the passage by the Pentland Firth: the danger of which would be much lessened by a harbour for large vessels being formed at Wick in Caithness, to which they could resort for shelter.'

We have no hesitation in saying that, in the present circumstances of the Highlands, it would be wiser to apply the money intended to be spent on this canal to other purposes. It is ridiculous, as Dr. A. remarks, to make expensive roads, where the people are so poor that all their property may be put in their pockets; or to excavate canals for large ships, when all the produce which they are able to export may be contained in a small boat.

On a former occasion, we applauded Mr. Fraser's zeal for the advancement of our Fisheries; and, as we fully enter into his truly patriotic and benevolent views, we ardently hope that his efforts will not be in vain.

Art. VIII. *Hints for the Improvement of the Irish Fishery.* By George N. Whately. 8v. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.

We have here another labourer in the same vineyard, and a labourer also who is intitled to reward. Though Mr. Whately modestly professes to have little practical experience, he must, on the evidence before us, be pronounced to be well informed; and his Hints unquestionably merit the attention of the Irish people, and of those who preside over the Empire. After having expressed his astonishment that, while other branches of national economy have been explored and cultivated, our Fisheries should have been so overlooked and neglected; and particularly in Ireland, which enjoys more than ordinary advantages for this pursuit; he proceeds to an examination of the state of the Irish Fisheries as it respects the mode of capture, for the purpose of recommending the new method of hake-fishing, by the *trammel net* in preference to the use of the hook. This trammel is the invention of Thomas Walton, Esq. of Oysterhaven, near Kinsale; who, reflecting on the principle on which the herring and mackerel nets are constructed, conceived the idea of applying it in the caption of the larger descriptions of Fish. He therefore had a net thus contrived, and the experiment surpassed his most sanguine expectations. Observing his success, some of his neighbours were induced to follow his example: but the crews

crews of the *Hookers**, alarmed at the growth of this new heresy in the fishing art, and envious of the benefits resulting from it to its converts, attacked it with all the means of persecution that were in their power, and by their malice checked its progress. 'The usual mode adopted by these people was to sail with four or five vessels abreast, sweeping with their anchors, as they went along, which, getting involved with the Trammels, dragged them forcibly from the situations where they were moored.' Moreover, as these depredations were committed in the night, it was impossible to identify the offenders, and the existing laws afforded no protection against them; the trammel-fishers, therefore, sustained repeated injuries, without the prospect of redress. It is easy to foresee the consequences of such discouragements, unless they be vigorously counteracted.

In order to prove that the Trammel Fishery demands the protection of Government, Mr. W. gives a statement of the advantages which it possesses, comparatively with the mode now practised:

'The cost of a hooker† is from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and fifty pounds. It is navigated by four men and a boy, whose more usual method of caption, is by the exercise of the line. The success is not merely dependent on unrelaxed attention. The mariner must have the *superadded* good-fortune of meeting the objects of his research in a *biting* humour, otherwise his labour and watchfulness are exerted in vain. The finny tribe may play around his hook, bask in his view, but he will sometimes experience the desire and the disappointment of Tantalus‡..

'A set

* A Hooker is a small vessel with one mast, built for the purpose of fishing.

'† It is neither wished to supersede, nor would the trammel be the means of superseding the use of the hookers, which are variously engaged in several distinct and useful modes of fishing. On the contrary, I am convinced there is only a particular season, when the trammel could be employed with benefit. Still I am desirous of its obtaining that security, which will permit the free use of it, during the four months of the year when it will be attended with effect. It will be as eligible for the hookers to avail themselves of the privilege, as it will for the small boats. I am therefore contending for a right that will be common to both.'

'‡ When Mr. Walton commenced his experiments with the trammel net, on a very small scale, and before the hookers offered him any opposition, in the pursuit of his discovery, he frequently stationed his little boat alongside those vessels, and has repeatedly caught, in two hours, upwards of a hundred hake, when the boats around him did not obtain ten each during the night. A strong proof of the superior destruction these nets occasion to the fish. I will also just remark in this place, that the construction of the net rather protects the lesser description of fish, as they can pass through it, whereas the hooked bait

'A set of trammel nets, with a boat, will cost from thirty to thirty-five pounds. It employs four men, and requires no attention after being immersed, as it captures the fish whilst pursuing their natural course. It will admit sufficient leisure to the men to throw out their lines. It has *occasionally* taken ten times, *usually* thrice, the number of hake* in one night which the crews of the hookers had been toiling unremittingly to procure.

'If no other advantage belonged to the trammel, than on the score of expence; if no further benefit was sought from its discovery, *that alone* must be a sufficient inducement to favour its *pretensions*; as upon such a calculation it follows, that, during the season, four times the supply of fish would be obtained at the same charge. But, exclusive of any consideration of this kind, it is admitted by those who oppose it (and this, indeed, is the chief motive of their opposition) that the quantity of fish, thus taken, exceeds incalculably the number caught with lines. There are instances of these nets entrapping fifteen and eighteen hundred hake in the space of one night, when the greatest success of a hooker, that can, I believe, be adduced, during the most abundant season, in the same period of time, never amounted to six hundred. On an arithmetical ratio, it is evident, the lapse of time *must* limit the progress of the one, even were the hook to secure its prey *the moment* it reached the water, whilst it *cannot* that of the other until the net be entirely full †.'

In another part of the pamphlet, Mr. W. mentions his having been present at Baltimore, in the west of Ireland, when fifteen hundred hake were taken at a haul.

Reasoning on the information which these facts contain, surely we may be justified in asserting that our markets may be much more abundantly supplied with fish than they are at present; and that our fisheries should be encouraged by bounties, and by the remission of the salt-duties. Mr. W. recommends certain measures to protect the Trammels against the Hookers; who, if their absurd prejudices prevail, will prevent the Irish Fishery from being so extensive as Nature would allow, and as Policy requires.

---

bait is equally attractive to the small as to the large—consequently the premature capture of the former is much greater by the line than by the trammel.'

* The *Gadus Merluccius* of Linné, a species of Cod.

'† Perhaps it is not one of the least of its good properties, that it requires no bait, for I have noticed great opportunities of success entirely lost from the want of that needful appendage to the hook.

'When I was at Baltimore, the scarcity, at times, was so great, that it was quite usual to exchange hake for herrings. To those who may not be acquainted with the size of the former, it may suffice to compare it to the exchange of a cod for a whiting.'

ART. IX. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Peebles*, with various Suggestions as to the Means both of the local and general Improvement of Agriculture. By the Rev. *Mr.* Charles Findlater, Minister of the Parish of Newlands in the County of Peebles. With a Map of the County, and *other Engravings* *. 8vo. pp. 420. 7s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; sold by Longman and Co London. 1802.

THOUGH this report was drawn up, at the request of Sir John Sinclair, for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, its publication is not sanctioned by that body; and we owe its appearance to the liberal patronage which the author has obtained in a numerous list of subscribers. We are informed that, from the occurrence of circumstances '*uninteresting* to the public, the work was not published by the Board of Agriculture, as originally intended:' but, when the curiosity of the public is thus raised, it is not satisfied with vague allusions to unexplained circumstances. The reasons, which either induced the Board to depart from its usual practice in the present instance, or which prompted the author to withdraw himself from its protection, cannot be uninteresting, whatever motives of prudence or delicacy there may be for concealing them: but we are left in the dark by Mr. Findlater's note, and the reader is at liberty to indulge his own speculations. We must observe, however, that, whether this report did or did not obtain the complete approbation of the Board of Agriculture, it evidently manifests knowlege and investigation, together with a commendable zeal for the improvement of the district which the author undertakes to describe. The style, indeed, abounds with Scoticisms, for which the situation of the author must be pleaded as an apology; and if his statements be accurate, if he has performed the duty of a natural, economical, and agricultural historian, with attentive observation and sacred fidelity, we are not disposed to condemn his work for little verbal inelegancies.

Mr. Findlater commences his survey of Peebles-shire, or Tweeddale, with some introductory observations; whence he passes to an arrangement similar to that which has been adopted in those publications of the same nature, which we have repeatedly noticed; viz. Geographical State and Circumstances, —State of Property,—Buildings,—Mode of Occupation,—Implements,—Enclosing,—Arable Lands,—Grass,—Gardens and Orchards,—Woods and Plantations,—Wastes and Commons,—Improvements,—Live Stock,—Rural Economy,—Political Economy, as connected with or affecting Agriculture,—

* We find only a single engraving, and that is miserably executed.

Obstacles to Improvement,—and Miscellaneous Observation.—Under these general heads, with their various subdivisions, much important and curious information is given. Some extracts will enable the reader to judge of the author's merit.

The situation, extent, soil and surface, minerals and springs, are thus described:

'The county of Tweeddale, or Peebles, is situated betwixt 55 deg. 24 min. and 55 deg. 50 min. of north latitude; and from 2 deg. 45 min. to 3 deg. 23 min. of longitude, west from London; or betwixt ☌-15 and ☌-23 west of the meridian of Edinburgh. It is bounded, upon the north, by the county of Mid-Lothian; upon the east, by that of Selkirk; upon the south, by that of Dumfries; upon the west, by that of Lanark. Its greatest length, from north to south, is about 30 miles; its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 22. The contents, (*See Statistical Tables,*) in English acres, amount to 229,778; or in Scotish, (at the rate of conversion, of 5 English to 4 Scotch acres,) to 183,823.'—

'The lowest lying arable land in the county, situated upon the side of the Tweed, where that river leaves the county, and enters Selkirkshire, *will be* about 400 feet above sea-level. Betwixt 900 and 1000 feet, is probably the highest elevation in which cultivation is attempted by the plough.

'The highest hill in Tweeddale (probably the highest in Scotland south of the Friths of Forth and Clyde) is *Hartfield*, in Tweedsmuir parish, upon the confines of Dumfries-shire; its height above sea-level is, according to Armstrong, 2916 feet; that of *Hartstane Broad Law*, in the same parish, is 2850; *Dollar Law*, in Mannor parish, is 2840. Armstrong, in his companion to his map, gives a variety of the heights of highest summits of those ridges of hills which traverse the county in all directions, extending from 1800 to 2300 feet above the level of the sea. Abstracting, then, the highest summits, the generality of the pasture lands may be considered as situated at from 500 or 600, to 1700 or 1800 feet above sea-level; or at 1150 feet at a medium.

'The climate, in such northerly latitude and high elevation, may readily be conceived as late; and, from the mountainous nature of the country, as moist. Sown-grass hay begins to be cut rather after the middle of July; that from natural grass, about the middle of August. Corn harvest seldom commences, generally, till the second week of September; and it is accounted rather an early harvest, when the whole is got into the Winter stack before the close of October. The reapers from the Highlands of Scotland generally find employment for several weeks in Tweeddale, after the termination of the Lothian harvest; the difference being observed as greater in favour of these lower counties in a bad, than in a good season.'—

'The higher the elevation, the greater is the degree of moisture, and the crops are found to run more to straw and less to corn.'—

'Cold

'Cold easterly winds often prevail during the Spring months; and it may be questioned, whether we have not, in general, more grass in the first half of December, than in May.'—

'Our Winters are rigorous; and the turnip crop is, of consequence, often lost, unless consumed by Christmas or New Year's day. Cattle do not fatten upon them in their frozen state; it is well if they merely do not lose flesh. In the higher parishes, they are often frozen to such hardness, that they must be allowed to thaw in running water, before the cattle can make impression upon them with their teeth.

'Besides the general frosts in Winter, the higher parishes are much exposed to a species of partial frosts in the end of August and beginning of September, which chiefly affect the low-lying lands by the sides of running waters, lakes, and morasses. A low creeping mist, or hoar frost, (called, provincially, *rhyme*, or *cranreugh*,) in a dead calm, particularly after a tract of rainy weather, is seen to settle, after sunsetting, upon lands of this description; which, if succeeded by bright sunshine the day following, proves destructive to all further vegetation. It would seem to do little damage to corns that are hard ripe; and in regard to some species, particularly that of oats, it does not prevent their further maturation, if it attacks them whilst the juices in the ear are still in a watery state: But, in the intermediate stages betwixt that state and maturity, it renders every species alike unfit for seed, and of very inferior value for meal, both in respect of quantity and quality.'—

'The climate of Tweeddale is not very propitious to fruit trees. The gooseberry, raspberry, currant, and strawberry, are the best fruits produced in our gardens. The raspberry is a native, and ripens its fruit in the highest parishes. The bramble is a very rare plant, excepting in the lower end of the county; and I am not ascertained that it brings its fruit to perfect maturity in any season. The hazel does not ripen its nut to perfection in the higher parishes, unless in very favourable seasons.'

By this view of the climate, the English farmer will not be tempted to migrate to the North.

Of the soil and surface, it is observed that

'By far the greater part of the soil of Tweeddale never was, nor probably ever will, be turned up by the plough. Of the lands under culture, there is great variety of soil; such as moss, clay, sand; moss and clay, moss and sand, clay and sand; and these mixtures, in every variety of proportion.'—

'In its general appearance, the county, though wild, can hardly be designed romantic: the mountains, though high and large, and too much upon the vast for beauty, are yet too tame for the sublime. There is nothing abrupt—nothing terrific—nothing, in short, to strike forcibly the imagination of the poet, or the painter; unless, indeed, the feelings of a native, blunted by familiarity and repetition, should be questioned, as a proper standard of judgement.

'The variety of hill, and dale, and water, might furnish scenes of great natural beauty, or even grandeur, were it not for the almost

total want of natural wood. For though tradition reports, that a great deal of wood once grew in the county, at present few vestiges of it remain; and where any are found, upon the banks of the waters and skirts of the hills, it is mere brushwood, consisting chiefly of birch miserably stinted in growth, some species of grey willow, hazel bushes, and a few mountain ashes, with sometimes a fringe of dwarfish alders marking the courses of the rivulets. It may, no doubt, be reckoned unfair to judge of what the natural wood might have been, by the remnant that now appears: The former wood may have been grubbed out for fuel, or to make room for pasture or the plough; and what now remains, may have been stinted in its growth by the repeated cropping of the sheep: The trees, however, found in mosses (the only specimens of the wood of former times), are generally, it must be confessed, of diminutive size.'

The enumeration of mineral productions includes white freestone, whinstone, slate, limestone, coal, and ironstone: to which it is added that

'Chalybeate springs, with blue scum, iron taste, and ochry sediment, every where abound in the parishes of Linton and Newlands. One of these, called *Heavenagua Well*, in Linton parish, is, I have been told, equally strong as the waters of Tunbridge. A spring was, within these fifteen years, discovered near the village of Inverleithan, containing both salt and sulphur, and said to be of the same nature as the waters of Harrowgate. It is considerably resorted to; and several houses, of two stories, have been built in the village, for accommodation. The yield of the spring, in dry weather, is at the rate of about one chopin (English quart) in the minute. Before its properties were attended to, the place where its waters oozed through the ground was much frequented by pigeons, and the spot had obtained the name of *the Pigeons Well*.'

On the waters of this county, many mills of different kinds are erected; of which, thrashing mills bear a considerable proportion; not to mention others that are worked by horses.

In the chapter on the state of property, Mr. F. informs us that the whole landed property, four-fifths of which is under strict entail, is divided among about 60 proprietors; that, as the country consists chiefly of hill pasture lands, producing an herbage scanty and poor in quality, and more fitted, in general, for rearing sheep, than for fattening them, a large extent is necessary to constitute any considerable value; that the number on the roll of freeholders is generally from thirty to thirty-five, who send one representative to parliament for the county; and that the tenures, by which lands are holden, may be classed into *superiority*, *property*, and *tack* or *lease*. As the former term may require explanation for most readers, we shall give Mr. F.'s account of it:

* Sup-

'*Superiority* is merely that nominal title to land, which confers the right of franchise. As 400l. valuation of superiority confers franchise, and as, in Scotland, superiority may be retained, when the property of the land is conveyed away, and this superiority may also be fictitiously conveyed in any given portions, it is evident, that, in creating votes, the superiority of the whole valuation, 51,927l. Scots, would give 129 voters at the county elections. As, however, the number commonly upon the roll of freeholders does not exceed 30 or 35, it may be readily inferred, that this county has not been much disturbed by the animosities of political contest.'

We shall pass by the houses of the proprietors, which are about 30 in number, to notice the account of the Scotch cottage, its furniture, and the mode of living which prevails in it:

'Half a century ago, a great part of the cottages of the Scots day-labourers were built with walls of turf; stone buttresses, or wooden posts, built into the wall, supporting the heavy timbers of the roof: A very few of this description still exist in this county; but the greater part are built of stone and lime. The general description of the cottage of a labourer or tradesman, who keeps a cow, is, a house of 18 or 20 feet by 15 or 16 within walls; the door is in front, close by one of the gables; two close beds form the cross partition, dividing the space occupied by the family from a space of four feet from the gable at which you enter, where stands the cow behind one of the beds, with her tail to the door of the house. There is one window in front near the fire gable, opposite to which, at the opposite wall, stands the *ambry*, or shelved wooden press, in which the cow's milk, and other family daily provision are locked up; and, above it, lying against the slaunt of the roof, is the *skelf*, or frame, containing shelves, with cross bars in front, to prevent the utensils set upon its shelves from tumbling off from its overhanging position; the show of the house depending much upon the quality and arrangement of the crockery and other utensils placed thus, in open view, upon the skelf. A chest, containing the family wardrobe, stands in front of one of the close beds, serving also for seats. The close beds are also furnished with a shelf at head and foot, upon which part of the family apparel is deposited, to preserve it from the dust. A wooden armed chair for the husband, when he arrives fatigued from his labour, and a few stools for the rest of the family, and a plunge churn, completes the inventory of household furniture; to which only a small barrel for salted flesh, and another for meal, may be added, if the family can afford to lay in stores and are not from hand to mouth. The cooking utensils are, a small cast-iron pot, in which is daily prepared the oatmeal porridge, the universal breakfast, eaten with milk, or with home-brewed weak ale from treacle, when the milk season is over; in which also the potatoes are boiled, as the universal supper, while they last, eaten either with milk, or merely with salt; in which is also prepared for dinner, through Winter, potatoes dressed with mutton-suet purchased for the purpose, or broth

to be eaten with bread, made universally with shelled barley, and kale from the kale yard, and, according to circumstances, either with or without a bit of salted mutton, to give them a relish; the butter from the cow being all sold fresh, from the high price it bears in such vicinity to Edinburgh, being the chief dependence for money to pay for the cow's Summer's grass, and to purchase her Winter's fodder; the skimmed milk only being used in the family, in the manner already stated; or, when most plenty in Summer, serving for dinner broth. The next indispensable cooking utensil, universally in use in every cottage and in every family in the country, is the *girdle*, which is a round thin plate, either of malleable, or of cast-iron, from a foot to two feet and an half in diameter, according to the size of the family. It is suspended over the fire by a jointed iron arch with three legs, called the *clips*, the ends of the legs of which are hooked, to hold fast the girdle. The clips is linked upon a hook at the end of a chain, called the *crook*, which is attached to an iron rod, or wooden beam, called the *ranle-tree*, which is fixed across the chimney-stalk, at some distance above the fire. Upon this girdle is baked the ordinary bread of the cottager, and of the farmer's servants, consisting of *bannocks* made of the meal of peas, or of barley, but more generally of the two meals together, and more rarely of oats. The meal is made into dough with water without leaven, and the dough is formed into circular cakes of from 7 to 9 inches diameter, and from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in thickness; it is then toasted first on one side, then the other, upon the girdle; and two or three days provision are made at once: The bread has but a doughy taste. The oat cake, known by the sole appellative of *cake*, is the gala bread of the cottager: The meal is made into dough with water, without leaven, as little water being used as is merely sufficient to make the meal stick together; the dough is then kneaded, or rolled out, as thin as possible, into a round cake, of diameter corresponding to the size of the girdle; the cake is then cut into four quadrants, and toasted on the girdle, alternately, on both sides, care being taken, both with cakes and bannocks, to prevent the girdle from being so hot as to burn their surface: When the cake is so hardened as to stand on edge, it is placed upon an iron heater, linked upon a bar of the grate, where it toasts leisurely, till it is perfectly dry, though noway burnt; if it hath lain some days unused, it is toasted anew before it is eaten; it thus constitutes a hearty species of bread, of a tonic quality, to judge by the taste; and which, by many Scotsmen in the higher ranks, is preferred to wheaten bread. There is just one other utensil indispensable to the cottager; which is, a very small barrel, or can, of stone ware, to hold his salt, which he keeps in a hole in the wall close by his fire, to prevent its running, from the moisture in the air: He must also have a wooden pail to carry water; in which his cow is milked, if he has one; on which supposition, too, he must have three cans of stone ware, or vessels of cooper's work, in which the milk is set in the ambry to stand for casting up the cream.

In the body of the work, and in the subjoined notes, we have a long detail of the state of the Scotch church; from which we

we extract the following table, shewing the provision of the Tweeddale clergy:

'The victual part of the stipend, generally one half oatmeal, and the other, beer in grain, is here converted at the rate of 15s. per boll. The glebes are valued at 1l. per acre, Scots; that of Peebles at 2l. Excepting where they can, without inconvenience, be kept in grass, the possession of a glebe may, however, be considered as constituting an article of expence, rather than of profit, to the clergyman: as, when kept under tillage, a preparation for labour must be maintained in readiness, of which the return of produce from such a small possession cannot defray the expence. The money stipend includes from 3l. to 5l. allowed the minister for the expence of administering the sacrament of the Lord's supper, called communion elements. No valuation is put upon the minister's manse or dwelling-house.

PARISHES.	PATRONS.	PROVISION OF THE CLERGY.			
		Money Stipend.	*Bolls of Victual.*	*Acres Scots in Glebe.*	*Whole Value of Living.*
		L. s. d.			L. s. d.
Linton	D. of Queensberry	56 13 4	110	15½	152 12 4
Newlands	Do.	64 0 0	96	16	148 0 0
Lyne and Megget	Do.	104 7 4	—	14	111 7 4
Broughton	Do.	56 0 0	48	21	114 0 0
Glenholm	Do.	46 13 4	96	9	127 13 4
Tweedsmuir	Do.	75 0 0	48	10	121 0 0
Drummelzier	Do.	74 2 0	74	10	139 12 0
Manner	Do.	91 16 10	—	24	115 16 10
Peebles	Do.	100 0 0	64	6	160 0 0
Inverleithen	Do.	70 18 6	95½	10	130 0 0
Kirkurd	Mr. Carmichael	70 0 0	—	19	80 0 0
Skirling	Do.	50 11 0	80	8	118 11 0
Kilbucho	Col. Dickson	55 0 0	80	11	126 0 0
Eddlestone	Lord Elibank	68 17 0	80	25	153 17 0
Traquair	The Crown	58 16 0	88	11½	130 6 0
Stobo	Sir Ja. Montgomery	68 0 0	64	21	137 0 0
Total		1110 11 4	903½	230	2000 13 10

'Several of the Duke of Queensberry's patronages are sold. The parishes of Glenholm, Kilbucho, and Broughton, are annexed together, as the incumbencies shall cease.'

On the subject of Inclosing, Mr. F. presents some remarks which, though peculiarly applicable to Scotland, merit attention, in many instances, south of the Tweed:

'In hearing of the measure, agitated in England, of a bill for general enclosure, it surprises a Scotsman, when he is informed that the bill is intended for the purpose of dividing into separate distinct properties, the lands held at present in conjunct property and possession;

sion: he is led, neither by the laws nor the practice of his country, to consider the enclosure of common-lands, as inseparably connected with their division: He is therefore disposed to interpret *enclosure* in a metaphorical sense, as implying the mere ideal enclosure of the divided lands within the comprehension of separate property. If in Scotland, as in England, *actual enclosing* were necessarily to follow upon division; this incurred obligation to enclose, would have proved, in general, an absolute bar to all application for division; as, in most of cases, the fee-simple of the commonties to be divided, would not have sufficed for the expence of separate enclosure.

'There are, in Scotland, general laws relative to division, *solely*; by which, upon application to the Court of Session, from any of the parties having interest, a division, according to respective interest in the subject, proceeds, after a manner both simple and unexpensive. But no obligation to enclose results from the act of division; there are separate laws for enclosure; and to these, recourse may be had, when the interest of those concerned shall suggest to them the propriety of such a measure.'

Much money is often idly expended in England, by making actual inclosure a measure necessarily subsequent on division. In corn districts, large open spaces are preferable to inclosures; and frequently nothing more is required by the farmer, than that the property which he occupies shall be contiguous, instead of scattered, as is often the case in minute subdivisions.

The crops commonly cultivated in Peebles-shire are, 1st, those which are ameliorating, as potatoe, turnip, peas, and artificial grasses; and 2dly, those which are exhausting, as oats, bigg, and barley. Wheat is not cultivated in the higher parishes, for want of proper climate; nor in the lower, as being too exhausting for the soil.

It is impossible not to smile when we come to the chapter intitled Gardens and Orchards: because, though mention is made of three hot-houses, and of one garden in a particularly favourable position, which produces two crops of peas in a year, the county cannot boast of a single orchard.

The chapter on Rural Economy contains a very brief section on *Provisions*, the whole of which we transcribe, in honour of Scotch economy:

'To what has been observed on this subject, under the article of *Farm Houses and Cottages*, it may be added, that, in sheep farms, the sheep dying of disease are used as flesh meat, under the designation of *traik*.'

According to the population-table at p. 239, containing an abstract of the returns made in pursuance of the act passed in 1801, it appears that the population of the county of Peebles amounts to 8802.

Among the obstacles to improvement, the author enumerates deficiency of capital,—prejudices,—the want of proper subdi-

vision of labour,—the want of storing up grain,—the prohibition of the exportation of wool,—corn laws,—game laws—bad roads,—and, above all, the want of richness of soil and benignity of climate. This last evil, he allows, admits not of a complete cure, though of some palliation: a consideration that must diminish the interest which the public would otherwise take in this survey, and must prevent any sanguine hope of improvement; since, where the population is thinly dispersed, and the soil and climate are unfavourable, exertion must be limited, and the benefits to be derived must be uncertain and inconsiderable.

ART. X. *Sermons.* By William Stevens, D.D., Rector of Great Snoring, and St. Peter's Walpole, County of Norfolk; Morning Preacher at Grosvenor Chapel; &c. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

EACH of these volumes contains twelve sermons. They are introduced by a discourse from Matt. xxiii. 34. on *the Guilt of Slighting Instruction*, which offers many just and useful reflections; and this is followed by six others, from Titus ii. 11, 12, 13, 14, disposed under the subsequent titles: "Salvation by the Grace of God:' 'Christian Morality:' 'The Second Coming of Christ, a principal Foundation of Christian Hope:' 'Redemption by Christ considered and explained:' 'The Gospel Covenant:' 'Christian Zeal.' In the discussion of these subjects, several valuable remarks occur. It is well known that Jewish imaginations had formed a very different Messiah from that which Christianity presented; yet, though they had but slight apprehensions of a *spiritual* deliverer, it does not so certainly and clearly appear, as our author seems to apprehend, that this people concluded that prosperity on earth was an indication of future felicity; or, as it is here farther expressed, 'Thus the rich thought themselves secure of eternal bliss: the poor, on the contrary, were in a kind of hopeless and despondent state.' Dr. Stevens applies this consideration to the universality of the evangelical institution; and in this manner he explains the phrase, *hath appeared to all men*, or those of every condition, particularly meaning those in inferior stations. It had been thought, says he, to be 'some degree of presumption in any one who was in a state of indigence or distress, to believe that he was an object of divine favour.' While, therefore, other instances of the universal salvation offered by the Gospel are undoubtedly comprehended, he conceives that 'the case of the poor was the apostle's present subject, and had the first place in his thoughts at this time:'—The preceding verses of the chapter, which relate to servants, (and, as it might have been

been added, to slaves,) afford support to his opinion;—and, since the Christian scheme embraces in this benevolent manner those of all nations, of every class and condition, with each individual among them, he proceeds (in our view, with great propriety and truth) to observe;

'This may be an evidence to us, that weak, illiterate mechanics and fishermen could not be the authors of it; for such men, though sometimes absurdly and ridiculously aspiring, are never actuated with such unprecedented vanity or ambition, as to set before them a boundless chimerical scheme, which the greatest monarchs, the ablest politicians, and the most enthusiastic religionists, never so much as attempted or thought of before. Or even if we should suppose it probable, that such obscure men might be thus vain and ambitious beyond example, yet, by what means could they hope to succeed in their enterprize? They had no treasure to bribe others to become their adherents: they had no power to compel them; no learning to convince them; no eloquence to persuade them; no address to entice them; no art to deceive them: and yet, under all these improbabilities, difficulties, and disadvantages, they really accomplished what they undertook, without either treasure, to bribe; or power, to compel; or learning, to convince; or eloquence, to persuade; or address, to entice; or art, to deceive. They delivered a system of moral and religious doctrines fit for all men to receive, and in which all men are concerned. They prevailed on mankind every where to examine and embrace their doctrines. Their proselytes were innumerable, and so widely diffused, that, in less than forty years after the death of Christ, we have reason to believe, Christianity had established itself in every nation of the then known world.'

Allowing it to be true that this new doctrine had, in so short a compass of time, attained so wonderful a progress, and taken root in many different countries, it has notwithstanding been urged that it has 'never yet been an universal religion;' in reply to which, Dr. S. remarks that Christianity leaves men free agents as it finds them:

'It attempts not to compel any person; if it did, it would defeat its own end, for compulsion and religion are utterly inconsistent with each other. And therefore, when the Scriptures tell us, that it is designed to be universal, it is not meant, that every individual of the human species shall profess it. The Author of it knew that it would always have many adversaries, and he taught his followers the same: consequently, when it is said to be universal, we are to understand that it is of universal use, and is universally proposed; that if men were impartial, it would be received by every one; that it is fit for all nations, and all ranks and orders of men; and adapted to all circumstances; that every one is required to embrace it, and perform obedience to all its precepts; and that this consideration of the utility and importance of its doctrines will, in time, induce the greatest part of mankind to receive it: that, in the mean while, it is in a progressive state, and was not designed to attain this extensive influence,

fluence, and meet with this universal reception in an instant: that a succession of ages, and many favourable incidents, are necessary to prevail with so many nations as the world is composed of, with so many prejudices, passions, and interfering interests, to take on them a religion which requires the renunciation of all these, and to bring into captivity every thought to the obedience of Christ. That this diffused and extensive influence of the evangelical dispensation is possible, cannot be denied; for nothing is impossible to the unerring wisdom and infinite power of God. That it is probable, may appear from a similar circumstance foretold by our Saviour, that the Gospel should be preached in all the nations of the then world before the destruction of Jerusalem. Which, though it be not necessary to understand the prediction in a sense that is strictly literal, we have good reason to believe, was literally fulfilled. And that it certainly will be thus widely diffused, we cannot doubt, if we reflect that God hath given us his infallible promise to that effect.—What most concerns us, and all professed Christians in every part of the world, is, to make the Gospel universal to ourselves; that is, to receive all its truths without exception, and to practise all its duties without hypocrisy; encouraging the truly Christian hope, that the period will arrive, when, "at the name of Jesus, every knee shall bow, and every tongue shall confess that Jesus Christ is Lord, to the glory of God the Father."

The sermon on Zeal, which closes this division, is discriminating and useful; and that which immediately follows, on the offering of Isaac, well deserves to be distinguished. Whether there was or was not, in this uncommon transaction, any thing typical of the Saviour of men, we presume not to determine: but the Scriptures do not appear to direct us to such a conclusion.—Four other subjects are canvassed in this volume: 'A Resurrection taught by Moses,' Luke xx. 37, 38: 'Our future Similitude to Christ:' 'The Divine Nature of Christ:' 'False Christs and false Prophets;' in which last, the author inquires 'in what respects miracles are to be considered as evidences of the true Messiah, and what merit those persons had, who received Jesus as the Messiah on the authority of such miracles; and how far they were culpable, who were deceived by false Christs, and false prophets.'

The second volume opens with a discourse on 'the Insufficiency of Human Wisdom;' and the great object of it is, to support the conclusion which many pious men have entertained; 'that unassisted, uninstructed natural reason, is not able to arrive at the knowledge of the true God.' It contains many appropriate observations.—In the next, on 'Christian Wisdom and Christian Simplicity,' it is remarked that 'we see no extraordinary evidences of wisdom in the serpent (Matt. x. 16.) at this day; nor had he probably more wisdom in proportion than other creatures in paradise. Nevertheless, the opinion being

popular and universally received, Christ adopts it as a proper and pertinent allusion on the occasion. Indeed, both he and his apostles frequently do the same, with regard to other popular notions, which are neither necessary and infallible truths, nor were argued on, or intended to be received as such.'—From the succeeding discourse, the reader might be led to suppose that the Psalmist had offered an improper request, when he says, Psalm v. 8. 'Make thy way *plain* before my face:'—for the writer applies himself principally to evince that the way of duty is rendered so clear by divine revelation, that farther light needs not to be desired: yet, allowing this to be true, how numerous are the occurrences in the general course of life, which will and must lead persons to wish for direction and assistance, and incline them to regard the advice, 'to ask wisdom of God!' Towards the close, this idea is briefly introduced, but perhaps not discussed suitably to the full meaning and spirit of the supplicant*.

'The Joy of a Good Conscience,' 2 Cor. i. 12. presents a very important subject, and is treated in an able manner; though, it may be thought, not with complete sufficiency. A very serious and striking admonition is presented in the following passage; and it will be happy for the world, should it prove, in fact, too severe!

'As to the common mass of mankind, who live by instinct or custom, who maintain a mere decent deportment, who set no other motive before them than interest or vanity, and regard only convenience or reputation, such persons have no testimony of conscience at all: and even the stings of a bad conscience are preferable to such a state as that: for there is hope that they who undergo the anguish and torment of conscious wickedness, and a self-condemned heart, may in time be brought, by what they feel, to a state of reformation, to a rational and religious demeanour; and thus may, by degrees, come to possess that greatest of all terrestrial blessings, peace of mind, and the consolations of a rectified conscience. But the mere showy rectitude of superficial regularity suggests no such hope: conscience is not in the least concerned in such a conduct, and therefore gives no testimony. Such men may enjoy the transient satisfaction of having succeeded in their schemes, and attained the end they proposed to themselves: but this satisfaction depends altogether on success; for, as we said before, if they fail of the success they promise themselves, they then experience no satisfaction in reflecting on their designs; whereas the consolations of conscience are felt most at those seasons in which earthly consolations desert us. And unless such persons can be brought to a sense of their folly and sin in having thus proceeded on such mis-

* Qu. Which agrees best with the original?—*plain*, as it is found in the Book of Common-Prayer;—or *straight*, as it stands in the English Bibles now in use?

taken

taken principles, there is no probability that they will ever understand what conscience is; or ever experience the joy or spiritual exultation that springs from a well regulated heart, and a uniform desire of obtaining the approbation of God.'

'The Cheerful Nature of Religion' supplies a subject for two sermons, which are succeeded by two others from Proverbs xix. 3. 'Man's unhappiness chiefly dependent on himself:' but we must now satisfy ourselves with barely mentioning the titles;—Folly of Sin;—Advantage of Godliness;—Shortness of Life;—Future Punishments. The last contains some remarks peculiarly worthy of attention.

It is more than time that we hasten to a brief view of the third volume; which must consist of little more than a recital of the subjects discussed in it: viz. Friendship; Anger; Suicide, two discourses; Self-sufficiency; External Profession; Faith; Sects; Resignation, two sermons; and Religious Affliction productive of public as well as private Blessings. Of this number, the first two are among the best, though others contain admonitions truly useful and highly worthy of regard: but these are inequalities. The discourse on *Sects* affords but a partial view of the subject, yet it unites with many passages in the volumes to prove the author's inclination to moderation and liberality.

On the whole, this publication is intitled to a favourable acceptance from pious readers, and corresponds with that countenance which it has received from a large number of subscribers. The style, if it does not attain superiority, is plain, easy, and agreeable: verbal and critical examinations do not often occur; but the writer appears to be a man of learning, from the citations adduced either to illustrate or to confirm his remarks. While urging established doctrines, he forgets not to be the warm and unceasing advocate for Christian piety and morality in all its extent; and he employs those expressions on the subject of good works, which prove him to be more solicitous of advancing the practice of virtue than of stimulating theological contention.

Art. XI. *Travels in the United States of America;* commencing in the Year 1793, and ending in 1797. With the Author's Journals of his two Voyages across the Atlantic. By William Priest, Musician, late of the Theatres, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

In a series of inartificial letters to his friend in England, Mr. Priest has interwoven the principal occurrences of his passage to and from America, and during his residence in the United

United States. A journal of the voyage across the Atlantic presents, as may be imagined, little that is interesting to the public: but some of the author's remarks on the nature of the country, and of his information on various topics respecting America, will be found worth the perusal.

At the period at which Mr. Priest undertook his expedition to the United States, the yellow fever had already made dreadful havoc among the inhabitants of Philadelphia; and the vessel in which he arrived was obliged, in consequence of all communication with the city being cut off, to come to anchor five miles below it. When he afterward visited that afflicted town, it was a truly melancholy scene to behold the dejected state of the inhabitants; their houses were mostly shut up, and the deserted streets grown over with grass.—Among other anecdotes of this place, we meet with a whimsical character of the name of Peter Brown, whose coat of arms furnishes the frontispiece of this volume:

'Peter Brown, a blacksmith of this city, having made his fortune, set up his coach; but so far from being ashamed of the means by which he acquired his riches, he caused a large *anvil* to be painted on each pannel of his carriage, with two naked arms in the act of striking. The motto, "*By this I got ye.*"

During his residence in Jersey, Mr. Priest took considerable pains to inform himself respecting the difficulties and obstacles which surround a back settler. It appears that by much industry, and by fortunate circumstances concurring, a man may be enabled to support himself and his family in some degree of independence: but that there will be found many drawbacks on his happiness, from the want of several of the necessaries of life, from the inability to procure relief in case of sickness, and, above all, from the terror of hostile depredations from the neighbouring Indians.

On his arrival at Baltimore, Mr. P. witnessed the prevalence of the same malignant fever which desolated Philadelphia: but, before his departure from this latter place, he had the satisfaction of seeing the trade of the city renewed by the restored health of its inhabitants. A striking instance is here adduced, of the increase of population within a few years:

'The following anecdote will give you some idea of the growth of the town, and amazing increase in the value of land:—

'An English gentleman, who emigrated to this country some years ago, built a small *country seat* on the side of the race ground; this house is now in the possession of a colonel Rogers, and in the *centre street of Baltimore.* The colonel has sold the wings for two thousand guineas to build upon, and still retains the house.'

In

In a subsequent letter from Baltimore, we have this account of the manufactories of the country:

'The manufactories in this country that have fallen under my observation are one of rifles at Lancaster, another of musquets at Connecticut, and at German Town, in Pennsylvania, a peculiar sort of winter stockings. An American has lately procured a patent from Congress, for cutting brads out of sheet iron with an engine. The American iron is of an excellent quality, and possesses a great degree of malleability, which perhaps suggested the first idea of this invention. The following extract from the advertisement of the patentee will enable you to form some judgement of this singular undertaking: "He begs leave to observe their superiority to English-wrought brads consists in their being quite regular in their shape, so much so, that ten thousand may be drove through the thinnest pine-board, without using a brad-awl, or splitting the board. They have the advantage also of being cut *with the grain* of the iron; others are cut *against* it. He has already three engines at work, which can turn out two hundred thousand per day."

'Another patent has been granted for making the teeth of cotton and wool cards by an engine, which is supposed to be a similar process.

'There are also manufactories of cotton, sail-cloth, gun-powder, glass, &c., but of no great consequence.

'Their sawing-mills are numerous, and well constructed; this circumstance, and the great quantity of timber, mast, spars, &c., with which this country abounds, enable them to build vessels considerably under what you can afford in England, though the wages of a shipwright are now two dollars and a quarter per day. Their ships, in point of model and sailing, if not superior, are at least equal to the best European-built vessels, and when constructed of *live oak*, and *red cedar*, are equally durable. Vessels of this description are scarce. Live oak is rarely met with north of the Carolinas: that used in the Boston ship-yards is brought from Georgia; a distance of more than a thousand miles.'

Among the sports, or rather the serious occupations of the back settlers, that of hunting the grey squirrel appears to form a principal branch. Mr. P. says that the Kentucky gazette thus stated the success of a party of sportsmen in this pursuit:

"*Lexington, July 13th.*

"At a squirrel-hunt in Madison county, on the 29th and 30th ult., the hunters rendezvoused at captain Archibald Wood's, and upon counting the *scalps*.* taken, it was found they amounted to 5589!"

'This sport is not confined to the back woods, but is in such general estimation as to be preferred to all other shooting. They find this game by means of a mongrel breed of dogs, trained for that purpose; the squirrel, on being pursued, immediately ascends one of

'* By scalp is here meant skin, which is an excellent fur.'

the

the most lofty trees he can find; the dog follows, and makes a point under the tree, looking up for his game. The squirrel hides himself behind the branches, and practises a thousand manœuvres to avoid the shot; sometimes springing from one tree to another, with astonishing agility. Nature has given him a thick fur; this circumstance, and the height of the trees, make a long barrel, and large shot, indispensable in this kind of shooting. The best method of cooking the squirrel is in a ragout; this I learnt of a French epicure, who always speaks with rapture of this *bonne bouche*: it has a high game flavour, and is justly thought by the Americans to be an excellent dish; but we have many English, who, through mere prejudice, never tasted this animal; their antipathy also extends to bear, opossum, racoon, and cat-fish;—"Oh!" say the English ladies, "the *sight* of such frightful creatures is quite enough for me!"

The present situation of our country induces us to extract Mr. Priest's remarks on the formation of corps of rifle men, because he writes from the information of those among whom this species of service is most known and most practised:*

DEAR SIR, *Philadelphia, September, 22d,* 1795.

'I find from a perusal of the English papers, that fencibles are raising in all parts of the country, and every precaution taking, to put the kingdom in the best state of defence, in case of an invasion. I have for some years thought a few regiments of riflemen would much contribute to this desirable end.

'Some lessons I have received in the use of the rifle, from back woodsmen, since my arrival in America, have confirmed me in this opinion.

'I know it will be objected, that the rifle is not a fair weapon. Perhaps it is not.—I should be sorry to see it in general use in the European armies: but surely it may be used to repel an invader, without any infringement of the Law of Nations.

'What I would recommend to Government on this subject is, first,

'OF FORMING THE CORPS.

'Beside the officers who have paid any attention to this method of fighting during the last war in America, some of the most experienced back woodsmen and Indian chiefs should be sent for from Canada.

'Independent of the regiments on the ordinary establishment, I would recommend one of *select men*, with better pay, &c., to be

* Of their skill we have this anecdote: 'During the late war, in the year 1775, a company of riflemen, formed from the back woodsmen of Virginia, were quartered here (Lancaster, in New England) for some time: two of them *alternately* held a board only nine inches square between his knees, while his comrade fired a ball through it from a distance of one hundred paces! The board is still preserved; and I am assured by several who were present, that it was performed without any manner of deception.'

formed

formed from the other rifle corps; *merit* being the only recommendation.

'Volunteer companies, in different parts of the country, might soon be formed, composed of gentlemen, sportsmen, game-keepers, &c. Proper persons should make the circuit of the kingdom, to instruct them in some of the most necessary particulars; such as loading, with the proper use of the patch; to draw a level, making a just allowance for distance, &c.

'OF RIFLES.

'I would by no means recommend *contract:* let proper encouragement be given to gun-smiths, to supply rifles of the best construction, *loading from the muzzle.*—Their being of an uniform length, or bore, is of no consequence, as every man should cast and cut his own ball.

'The barrel, mounting, and lock, should be covered with a composition, to render them as dull, and as little discernible, as possible. The locks should always be in the very best firing order, and constructed to give fire as easily as the nature of the service will admit. Oil, for the inside of the rifle, should be regularly served; and the flints should be of a much better quality than those used in muskets.

'POWDER.

'Every thing depends upon this article's being of an uniform degree of strength: it should be of the best quality, but not glazed.

'ACCOUTREMENTS AND DRESS

'Cannot be better than those used by the rifle corps in this country, except perhaps that the latter should be of a dusky green, the colour died in the Highlands of Scotland for plaids: even the cap should be of this colour: a sort of helmet, constructed so as to afford a rest to fire from, when lying on the belly.

'EXERCISE, &c.

'It may perhaps be presumption in me to say any thing on this subject; but I cannot help thinking it should be the *reverse* of what is used in the Line. They should be encamped as much as possible in a woody country, as the art of *freeing*, as the back woodsmen call it, is one of their best manœuvres. Their whole time should be taken up in the *real* study of their profession, not in powdering, pipe-claying, blacking, polishing, and such military fopperies.

'The rifle out of the question, I do not think *slow, deliberate firing* sufficiently attended to in the English army. Want of ammunition first introduced it into this country at Bunker's Hill, and afterward at Sullivan's Island. The carnage that ensued was a fatal proof of its efficacy.

'I have often thought, that the success of our navy was in a great measure owing to *cool, deliberate firing;* and there is no doubt but that the military fame of our ancestors was owing to their great superiority in shooting with the long bow; for the exercise of which, butts were erected in every village in the kingdom.'

The reader will meet with several other amusing passages in the volume; and although the discoveries which Mr. P. has made in his tour to the United States are of no great political importance, yet they are offered to the public with the liveliness of a traveller who has been both interested and pleased by his journey, and who good-humouredly wishes to impart to others a portion of that entertainment which he himself experienced.

ART. XII. *Rural Philosophy:* or, Reflections on Knowledge, Virtue, and Happiness; chiefly in Reference to a Life of Retirement in the Country. By Ely Bates, Esq. 8vo. pp. 356. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

THIS publication, as we are informed in the preface, owes its birth to Zimmermann's Treatise on Solitude; on which work, Mr. Bates had originally intended to offer a critique: but, finding it too defective in logical analysis, he was afterward induced rather to follow the train of his own reflections, than to confine himself to the steps of the German writer. To those who are of a serious and religious turn of mind, these reflections will prove a grateful and valuable acquisition. Many observations of a similar nature, it is true, are to be found among the writings of other moralists and essayists; yet we cannot refuse to this author all claim to originality. We plainly perceive that he is a man who has both inclination and ability for the exertion of the powers of reason: but as, on the one hand, it would be difficult in a treatise of this nature to be altogether original, so, on the other, it is not easy for a writer to recollect, in many cases, whether he is indebted for a sentiment to books or to the resources of his own mind. It may be urged, indeed, that this is not of material consequence, where the remarks, like many in the present volume, are worth the repetition: since he, who applies them to his purpose judiciously, renders them his own.

The preface, which is rather long, contains observations on the *sentimental turn* of the present age, which resolves all the springs of moral conduct into *feeling*; and the author laments the general want of *rural philosophy*, or that wisdom which teaches man to improve and enjoy the leisure of retirement. The treatise itself is intended to contribute towards remedying that evil; and we wish that it may answer Mr. Bates's benevolent and pious views. It is divided into four parts. The first treats of knowlege, in three different sections: 1. Knowlege of God; 2. of the World; 3. of Ourselves.—Part II. On Virtue, in three sections: 1. How far Retirement is favourable

able to Virtue. 2. The more positive Means of Virtue. 3. Evils of Retirement, and Remedies.—Part III. On Happiness, in three sections: 1. As it arises from Retirement, Agriculture, &c. 2. Literary Retirement; 3. Devotional Retirement.—Part IV. considers objections to Retirement, in three sections: 1. Utility of Public Stations. 2. Utility of a Retired Life. 3. Utility of Monasteries. The whole concludes with remarks and inferences on *the choice of life*.

We give an extract from Mr. B.'s observations on the positive means of virtue:

'Even a mere exhibition of the world, in the mirror of faithful history, has in itself a powerful tendency to produce, among other good effects, the cure of a vain ambition, to reconcile the mind to a virtuous obscurity, and to inspire a spirit of universal candour and moderation. While we contemplate the dishonest shifts, the mean compliances, the endless mortifications and disappointments, of worldly men, in the chace of power and distinction; or note the innumerable recorded examples, on the one hand, of prosperous folly or villainy, and, on the other, of neglected or degraded merit; the mind naturally recoils with indignation, and clings with alacrity to the blessings of a humble condition. Or when we view the various sects and parties into which men are divided, in religion and politics, and observe that the best of them are not without some alloy of error or depravity, nor the worst without some laudable opinion or practice, we find relief from bigotry and faction, and learn to look on those of our own way without a blind admiration, and to regard the rest with a spirit of generous equity.'

These sentiments are just and candid, and tend to raise a very favourable opinion of the author, with respect both to understanding and heart.—In another place, his reflections on the character of a statesman so cordially meet our own, that we cannot withhold them from our readers:

'The last character I shall consider under the head of public utility, is of a higher order, its influence is far more extensive and commanding, and, according as it is well or ill employed, is productive of the greatest benefit or injury to society; I mean the character of a statesman.

'A man placed at the head of public affairs, who estimates national prosperity by the diffusion of virtuous happiness, and, agreeably to this maxim, employs every lawful measure to prevent idleness, to encourage industry, to restrain licentiousness, and to protect and cherish true liberty, is undoubtedly to be ranked among the greatest of human benefactors, has a just claim to the warmest gratitude of his fellow citizens, and to the general esteem of mankind. To such a patriot minister, the pious recluse will look up as to a tutelary angel, and attend him with emotions of veneration in all his endeavours to promote the virtue and ameliorate the state of his country.

'The statesman who proceeds upon lower principles, and who looks no farther than to the outward splendour of affairs, is entitled to no such reverence. Though he may pompously harangue in the senate, and may be ardent in his schemes to advance the wealth, and power, and renown, of his country, his soul is vulgar, and wants true moral elevation; he wants a just sense wherein the real prosperity and glory of a state consists, and of what is necessary to secure its permanence and stability. Every age has experienced, what every age is disposed to forget, and the statesman no less than any other individual, that national wealth and power, without the strong corrective of virtue, can only produce a transient glory, and are sure to terminate in national shame and ruin.'

As in other parts of the volume we behold the sound moralist, or the pious advocate for revealed religion, in this last passage we see at once those principles combining to form the enlightened patriot.

Among the different points of view, in which Mr. B. exhibits *the utility of retired life*, we find these sensible reflections:

'A retired man, with that general knowledge which so much becomes every person of leisure and fortune, and with that practical benevolence which becomes him still more, may be of various service in his vicinity. By an acquaintance with agricultural improvements he may suggest useful hints how to manage a farm to the best advantage, to a less informed and industrious neighbour; or, by a degree of medical skill, may contribute to his health. He may prevent disputes and litigation, or by his amicable interference and legal knowledge help to bring them to the speediest issue; and in many other ways, too obvious to be here enumerated, by a proper application of his fortune and influence, he may add much to the peace and comfort of those around him.'—

'A retired man of letters, if he has a son, may find much useful employment in the care of his education. He may himself assume the office of domestic tutor, and thus avoid the necessity of committing him into the hands of persons who have no natural interest in his welfare, or of exposing him to the contagion of those vices which are almost inseparable from great schools. Besides, by this domestic tuition, a considerable portion of that time, which, according to the routine of what is called a classical education, is consumed in the barren study of words, the fictions of poets, or the vanities of heathen mythology, may be employed in the cultivation of his reason, and the acquirement of much solid learning. Instead of a smattering in a dead language, of which he may never find any use, and which, to increase the difficulty of attainment, is absurdly made introductory to itself; instead of a memory charged with stories of ideal metamorphoses, and obscene adventures of gods and goddesses; a boy of common capacity may early be initiated in the rudiments of real science, may be made acquainted with many of the less obvious changes and operations of nature, with many surprising properties of light and fire, of air and water, with the elements of astronomy, of geography, of general history, and of various other parts of knowledge at once both

useful and ornamental. And, what is more important (as was observed in a former section) than a proficiency in particular branches of learning, his faculties may be prepared for any acquisitions which he may find necessary in his progress through the world, and his understanding formed to pronounce justly upon their value. Above all, the anxious affection of a parent, if he is at all qualified to sustain that character, will naturally induce him to practise every method which may inspire his son with the love of truth and virtue, and consequently with a distaste of all such tales and fictions, however set off and embellished by the power of genius, which may violate the integrity of the one, or the purity of the other.

'A learned and ingenious recluse may sometimes aid the progress of general knowledge and improvement. If he is a mathematician, though he may not be able to extend the limits of a science which seems already to have been carried beyond the bounds of utility, he may help to render some of its practical branches more attractive and accessible. If he is a botanist, he may pick up some unknown and salutary plant in his rural excursions; or, if he has a turn for chymistry, he may light upon some discovery which will be of use in agriculture or medicine, in arts or manufactures; and in other departments of science, or natural history, he may contribute something by his researches to the general benefit. As a moralist he may contribute still more: from the elevated ground of serene contemplation he may look down on mankind with an impartial eye, and take large surveys of their different pursuits; and, whilst they are busily engaged in the race of life, may admonish them of the laws which ought to regulate the course, and which, in the eagerness of competition, they are very liable to forget. He may help to place them at that ideal distance from themselves, and from the world, without which they are sure to form undue estimates of both, to magnify their own abilities and virtues, and the importance of the objects they have in view. This power of mental abstraction is a principal advantage to be sought in retirement; and to reflect this advantage back upon society, is to render it the most essential service. To do this is indeed not within the reach of every literary contemplative, and is only to be expected from one, who, after he has seen much of the world, carefully weighs and digests his observations in solitude; or who, by a narrow self-inspection, and a diligent perusal of general history, has acquired such a knowledge of himself, and of mankind, as will nearly answer the same end.'—

'A retired man may be useful to others by his example. The world wants repose; and the exhibition of a virtuous and happy retirement has a tendency to quiet its agitation. It shews that a simple mode of life is sufficient for every purpose of nature or rational enjoyment, and that there is no need to resort to the court or the city, to camps or senates, to theatres or fashionable assemblies, either for occupation or amusement. Men take too much pains to be happy; they construct for this end operose and complex engines, which are difficult to frame, and more difficult to keep in order; they imagine that some *great thing* (if I may allude to an ancient story in scripture) is necessary for the accomplishment of their object, though there is

need only to *wash and be clean;* nor is there any lesson which better deserves their study, than what is held out to them in a life of unambitious and virtuous retreat.

'In one or more of these ways may a retired man be a public blessing; and though it is possible that, after all his endeavours, the amount of his service to others may be but little, (which indeed may be the case of any man in any situation,) he may still be of the highest service to himself. In his solitary walks and meditations he may acquire and strengthen a habit of pious recollection, and cultivate an acquaintance with God, and with his own nearest concerns. Thus intent upon a better world, and little anxious about the present, (by which perhaps he is neglected or forgotten,) he will grow every day more disposed to bid it heartily farewell.'

Mr. Bates does not forget to give due weight to the representation of the service, which may be rendered to the cause of religion, by the precepts and example of the virtuous man in rural society.—We coincide with him in most of his exemplifications of the duties and the utility of a life passed in retirement; and as we apprehend that too many persons in such a situation require to be reminded of these truths, we recommend to them an attentive perusal of this well written and truly commendable volume.

ART. XIII. *The Algerine Captive;* or, the Life and Adventures of Doctor Updike Underhill, six Years a Prisoner among the Algerines. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

AFTER having duly commemorated his honest ancestor, Captain John Underhill, this interesting writer informs us that his own birth and misfortunes, like those of other notable worthies, were prefigured to his mother in a dream; and that a number of young tawny savages, playing at foot-ball with his head, were a type of his captivity among a ferocious people.—According to the custom of New Hampshire, his native province, he was sent to a woman's school in the summer, and to a man's in the winter. In his twelfth year, he read a lesson in Dilworth's Spelling-Book, with such powers of vociferation as procured for him the distinguished notice of a stentorian clergyman, who, with some difficulty, obtained him for his pupil. Under his new master, he studied Greek and Latin during four years. 'As to the English Grammar,' he says, 'my preceptor, knowing nothing of it himself, could 'communicate nothing to me.' Many were the compliments which young Updike received on his proficiency in the *deceased* languages. 'Thus, flattered by the learned that I was in the high road to fame, I gulped down portions of Greek daily, while my preceptor made quarterly visits to my father's barnyard for pay for my instruction.'

In

In consequence of a shrewd conversation with a worthy divine of Boston, who happened to be little enamoured of Greek and Latin, the father, who was more desirous that his son should learn *useful things* than hard words, determined to make him labour on the farm:

'But, alas! a taste for Greek had quite eradicated a love for labour. Poring so intensely on Homer and Virgil had so completely filled my brain with the Heathen mythology, that I imagined a Hamadryad in every sapling, a Naïad in every puddle; and expected to hear the sobbings of the infant Fauns as I turned the furrow. I gave Greek names to all our farming tools, and cheered the cattle with hexameter verse. My father's hired men, after a tedious day's labour in the woods, inspecting our stores for refreshment, instead of the customary bread and cheese and brandy, found Homer's Iliad, Virgil Delphini, and Schrevelius's Lexicon, in the basket.

'After I had worked on the farm some months, having killed a fat heifer of my father's, upon which the family depended for their winter's beef, covered it with green boughs, and laid it in the shade to putrefy, in order to raise a swarm of bees, after the manner of Virgil, – which process, notwithstanding I followed closely the directions in the Georgics, somehow or other failed,—my father consented to my mother's request, that I should renew my career of learning.'

Updike therefore engaged to keep a school in a neighbouring town; but his elevation brought not with it that respect and independence which hope and vanity had so fondly pictured. His sixty boys were clamorous and petulant, the schoolhouse was burned down by their carelessness, the promised salary proved unproductive, and the humbled pedagogue gladly purchased his emancipation with the loss of his reputation and of a *Gradus ad Parnassum*.

As he next resolved to study physic, he was placed under a physician and oculist, not less celebrated for his skill than beloved for his amiable manners and his pure benevolence. A young gentleman very amiable and highly accomplished, though born stone-blind, is described as performing wonders by means of his other organs of perception:

'Upon this young man, my preceptor operated successfully. I was present during the whole process, though few were admitted. Upon the introduction of the couching instrument, and the removal of the film from the retina, he appeared confused. When the operation was completed, and he was permitted to look around him, he was violently agitated. The irritability of the ophthalmic muscles faintly expressed the perturbation of his mind. After two-and-twenty years of total darkness, to be thus awakened to a new world of sensation and light, to have such a flood of day poured on his benighted eye-balls, overwhelmed him: the infant sight was too weak for the shock, and he fainted. The doctor immediately intercepted the light with the proper bandages, and, by the application

of volatiles, he was revived. The next day the dressings were removed: he had fortified his mind, and was more calm. At first he appeared to have lost more than he had gained by being restored to vision. When blind, he could walk tolerably well in places familiar to him. From sight, he collected no ideas of distance. Green was a colour peculiarly agreeable to the new-born sight. Being led to a window, he was charmed with a tree in full verdure, and extended his arms to touch it, though at ten rods distance. To distinguish objects within reach, he would close his eyes, feel for them with his hands, and then look earnestly upon them.

'According to a preconcerted plan, the third day his bandages were removed, in the presence of his parents, brothers, sisters, friends, and of the amiable lovely girl to whom he was shortly to be married. By his request, a profound silence was to be observed, while he endeavoured to discover the person of her who was the object of his dearest affection. It was an interesting scene. The company obeyed his injunction. Not a finger moved, or a breath aspirated. The bandage was then removed; and when he had recovered from the confusion of the instant effusion of light, he passed his eye hastily over the whole group. His sensations were novel and interesting. It was a moment of importance: for aught he knew, he might find the bosom partner of his future life, the twin soul of his affection, in the fat scullion wench of his father's kitchen, or in the person of the toothless, palsied, decrepit nurse, who held the bason of gruel at his elbow.

'In passing his eye a second time over the circle, his attention was arrested by his beloved cousin. The agitations of her lovely features, and the evanescent blush on her cheek, would have at once betrayed her to a more experienced eye. He passed his eye to the next person, and immediately returned it to her. It was a moment big with expectation. Many a finger was raised to the lips of the spectators, and many a look expressive of the silence she should preserve was cast towards her. But the conflict was too violent for her delicate frame. He looked more intensely; she burst into tears, and spoke. At the well known voice he closed his eyes, rushed towards her, and clasped her in his arms. I envied them their feelings; but I thought then, and do now, that the sensations of my preceptor, the skilful, humane operator, were more enviable. The man who could restore life and usefulness to the darling of his friends, and scatter light in the paths of an amiable young pair, must have known a joy never surpassed; except, with reverence be it spoken, by the satisfaction of our benevolent Saviour, when, by his miraculous power, he opened the eyes of the actually blind, made the dumb to sing, and the lame and impotent leap for joy.'

On his introduction to the polite circles, Mr. Updike Underhill occasionally ventured to quote Greek: but the finest lines of the Iliad were received with coldness. One young lady only affected to be pleased; and to her the young Esculapius addressed an ode: but his classical compliments of *golden tresses* and *ox-eyed* were peculiarly unfortunate, 'as the young

young lady was remarkable for very prominent eyes, which resembled what, in horses, are called wall-eyes. Her hair was what is vulgarly called carroty; its unfashionable colour she endeavoured in vain to conceal by the daily use of a leaden comb.'

Disgusted with the frivolity of the young and the deceit of the antiquated ladies, the Doctor now applied himself in good earnest to the study of his profession; and, in the autumn of 1785, he mounted his horse, and sallied from the paternal mansion in quest of practice, fame, and fortune: none of which he procured. It required, however, little sagacity to discern the ignorance and jealousy of several brethren of the trade, who had obtained advantageous situations.

Hoping for more encouragement in the south;

'I carried,' says the Doctor, 'a request to the late Dr. Benjamin Franklin, then president of the state of Pennsylvania, for certain papers I was to deliver further southward. I anticipated much pleasure from the interview with this truly great man. To see one, who, from small beginnings, by the sole exertion of native genius and indefatigable industry, had raised himself to the pinnacle of politics and letters; a man who, from an humble printer's boy, had elevated himself to be the desirable companion of the great ones of the earth; who, from trundling a wheelbarrow in bye lanes, had been advanced to pass in splendour through the courts of kings; and, from hawking vile ballads, to the contracting and signing treaties, which gave peace and independence to three millions of his fellow citizens, was a sight interesting in the extreme.

'I found the doctor surrounded by company, most of whom were young people. He received me with the attention due to a young stranger. He dispatched a person for the papers I wanted; asked me politely to be seated; inquired after the family I sprang from; and told me a pleasing anecdote of my brave ancestor, captain Underhill. I found in the doctor all that simplicity of language which is remarkable in the fragment of his life, published since his decease, and which was conspicuous in my Medical Preceptor. I have since been in a room a few hours with governor Jay, of New York; have heard of the late governor Livingston, of New Jersey; and am now confirmed in the opinion I have suggested, that men of genuine merit, as they possess the essence, need not the parade of great knowledge. A rich man is often plain in his attire; and the man who has abundant treasures of learning, simple in his manners and style.

'The doctor, in early life, was economical from principle; in his latter days, perhaps from habit. Poor Richard held the purse-strings of the president of Pennsylvania. Permit me to illustrate this observation by an anecdote. Soon after I was introduced, an airy thoughtless relation, from a New England state, entered the room. It seems he was on a party of pleasure; and had been so much involved in it, for three weeks, as not to have paid his respects to his venerable

venerable relative. The purpose of his present visit was to solicit the loan of a small sum of money, to enable him to pay his bills, and transport himself home. He preluded his request with a detail of embarrassments which might have befallen the most circumspect. He said that he had loaded a vessel for B—; and, as he did not deal on credit, had purchased beyond his current cash, and could not readily procure a draft upon home. The doctor inquiring how much he wanted, he replied, with some hesitation, fifty dollars. The benevolent old gentleman went to his escritoir, and counted him out a hundred. He received them with many promises of punctual payment, and hastily took up the writing implements, to draught a note of hand for the cash. The doctor, who saw into the nature of the borrower's embarrassments better than he was aware, and was possessed with the improbability of ever recovering his cash again, stepped across the room, and laying his hand gently upon his cousin's arm, said, "Stop, cousin, we will save the paper; a quarter of a sheet is not of a great value, but it is worth saving:"—conveying, at once, a liberal gift and gentle reprimand for the borrower's prevarication and extravagance. Since I am talking of Franklin, the reader may be as unwilling to leave him as I was. Allow me to relate another anecdote. I do not recollect how the conversation was introduced, but a young person in company mentioned his surprise that the possession of great riches should ever be attended with such anxiety and solicitude; and instanced Mr. R— M—, who, he said, though in possession of unbounded wealth, yet was as busy and more anxious than the most assiduous clerk in his counting-house. The doctor took an apple from a fruit-basket, and presented it to a little child, who could just totter about the room. The child could scarce grasp it in his hand. He then gave it another, which occupied the other hand. Then choosing a third, remarkable for its size and beauty, he presented that also. The child, after many ineffectual attempts to hold the three, dropped the last on the carpet, and burst into tears. See there, said the philosopher; there is a little man with more riches than he can enjoy.'

In the course of his peregrinations, Dr. U. was witness to an extraordinary Sunday scene:

'When we arrived at the church, we found a brilliant collection of well-dressed people, anxiously waiting the arrival of the parson—who, it seems, had a small branch of the river M—— to pass; and, we afterwards learned, was detained by the absence of his negro boy, who was to ferry him over. Soon after, our impatience was relieved by the arrival of the parson in his canonicals—a young man, not of the most mortified countenance, who, with a switch called a supple jack in his hand, belaboured the back and head of the faulty slave all the way from the water to the church door, accompanying every stroke with suitable language. He entered the church, and we followed. He ascended the reading desk, and, with his face glowing with the exercise of his supple jack, began the service with, "I said I will take heed unto my ways, that I sin not with my tongue.—I will keep my tongue as it were with a bridle, when I am

before the wicked.—When I mused, the fire burned within me, and I spake with my tongue," &c. &c. He preached an animated discourse, of eleven minutes, upon the practical duties of religion, from these words, "Remember the sabbath day, to keep it holy;" and read the fourth commandment in the communion. The whole congregation prayed fervently that their hearts might be inclined to keep this holy law. The blessing was pronounced; and parson and people hastened to the horse race. I found the parson as much respected on the turf as upon the hassock. He was one of the judges of the race; descanted, in the language of the turf, upon the points of the two rival horses; and the sleeve of his cassock was heavily laden with the principal bets. The confidence of his parishioners was not ill founded; for they assured me, upon oath and honour, that he was a gentleman of as much uprightness as his grace the archbishop of Canterbury. Ay, they would sport him for a sermon or a song against any parson in the union.'

Failing of success also in the southern states, our adventurer now accepted a surgeon's birth in a ship bound for London, and thence to the coast of Africa. Omitting the lions in the Tower, the Doctor brings us into the company of Thomas Paine, whom he honours with three chapters.

A few additional pages transport us to that shore on which professing Christians and professing admirers of a free constitution continue to outrage the most sacred rights of our species. Here the narrative assumes a tone at once indignant and pathetic: but we purposely spare our readers the shocking recitals which close the first volume, and which are continued with little interruption in the second; rather inviting them to contemplate the picture of the government, character, and manners of the Algerines, and the author's concise but temperate view of the Mahometan religion. The latter concludes with the following important hint:

'Upon the whole, there do not appear to be any articles in their faith which incite them to immorality, or can countenance the cruelties they commit. Neither their Alcoran nor their priests excite them to plunder, enslave, or torment. The former expressly recommends charity, justice, and mercy, towards their fellow men. I would not bring the sacred volume of our faith in any comparative view with the Alcoran of Mahomet; but I cannot help noticing it as extraordinary, that the Mahometan should abominate the Christian on account of his faith, and the Christian detest the Mussulman for his creed; when the Koran of the former acknowledges the divinity of the Christian Messias, and the Bible of the latter commands us to love our enemies. If either would follow the obvious dictates of his own scripture, he would cease to hate, abominate, and destroy the other.'

Dr.

Dr. U. was no sooner allowed by the Algerines to exercise his professional talents, than he enjoyed relaxation from hard labour, and respite from cruel sufferings. His fees belonged to his master: but his perquisites, as a slave, at length amounted to a considerable sum. Being aided by the purse and the ingenuity of a benevolent Jew, he was on the point of obtaining his freedom: but, at this critical moment, his benefactor died of an apoplexy, and his son not only affected ignorance of the whole proceedings, but retained the ransom-money.

The director of the hospital now proposed that our author should accompany a party of merchants on their voyage and journey to Medina and Mecca, and perform the functions of their medical attendant. On his return from this pilgrimage, he had the pleasure of rescuing from a severe illness the son of his late patron: but the young man, instead of repaying the money which he now acknowleged he possessed, secretly sold him, and artfully decoyed him on board a Tunisian vessel. A fortunate storm drove the latter on the coast of Sardinia, where she was captured by a Portuguese frigate. At length, relieved from thraldom, and treated with much kindness by the Portuguese officers, Dr. U. embarked for Bristol:

'We had a prosperous voyage to the Land's End; and, very fortunately for me, just off the little isle of Lundy, spake with a brigantine bound to Chesapeak Bay, captain John Harris commander. In thirty-two days we made Cape Charles, the north chop of the Chesapeak, and I prevailed upon the captain to set me on shore; and on the third day of May, 1795, I landed in my native country after an absence of seven years and one month; about six years of which I had been a slave. I purchased a horse, and hastened home to my parents, who received me as one risen from the dead. I shall not attempt to describe their emotions, or my own raptures. I had suffered hunger, sickness, fatigue, insult, stripes, wounds, and every other cruel injury; and was now under the roof of the kindest and tenderest of parents. I had been degraded to a slave, and was now advanced to a citizen of the freest country in the universe. I had been lost to my parents, friends, and country; and now found, in the embraces and congratulations of the former, and the rights and protections of the latter, a rich compensation for all past miseries. From some minutes I preserved, I compiled these memoirs; and, by the solicitations of some respectable friends, have been induced to submit them to the public. A long disuse of my native tongue will apologise to the learned reader for any inaccuracies.

'I now mean to unite myself to some amiable woman, to pursue my practice as a physician, which I hope will be attended with more success than when essayed with the inexperience and giddiness of youth; to contribute cheerfully to the support of our excellent government, which I have learnt to adore in schools of despotism; and thus

thus secure to myself the enviable character of an useful physician, a good father, and worthy FEDERAL citizen.

'My ardent wish is, that my fellow citizens may profit by my misfortunes. If they perube these pages with attention, they will perceive the necessity of uniting our federal strength to enforce a due respect among other nations. Let us one and all endeavour to sustain the general government. Let no foreign emissaries inflame us against one nation, by raking up the ashes of long extinguished enmity; or delude us into the extravagant schemes of another, by recurring to fancied gratitude. Our first object is union among ourselves. For to no nation besides the United States can that ancient saying be more emphatically applied,—BY UNITING WE STAND, BY DIVIDING WE FALL.'

Such is a sketch of the principal incidents recorded in this narrative. Of the style, it may be proper to observe that it is more easy than elegant, more expressive than correct, and abounds with trans-atlantic peculiarities. If the management of the story yield in comparison with the *Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*, the reader is nevertheless carried along by a train of probable and touching events; and if he discern few traces of the exquisite humour which pervades *Gulliver's Travels*, or of the delicate and refined irony which gives zest to the *Persian Letters*, he is yet pleased with natural and lively painting, distinctly figures each passing scene, and smiles or sighs as he contemplates the folly or wickedness of human kind.

As the privation of a blessing most forcibly teaches us its importance, the writer of this performance has wisely exhibited the miseries of captivity, in order that his countrymen may perceive and feel the value of that independence for which they fought and conquered. An able and warm advocate of civil and religious freedom, he nobly reprobates the narrow distracted views of European policy, and feelingly deplores the systematic oppression of the ignorant and unoffending African. The display of such generous sentiments may be allowed to atone for partial failures in the execution of his plan. As friends rather than as critics, we shall only beg leave to observe, that the contents of the first volume are more diversified and more amusing than those of the second; that the moral picture of London is darkened with shading not its own; and that, in the dialogue with the Mollah, the author too feebly defends that religion which he professes to revere.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1803.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 14. *Five Common-Sense Arguments*, to evince the Efficacy and enforce the Duty of Inoculation by the Small-Pox; and to obviate existing Prejudices and Objections. Most respectfully dedicated to the Board of Directors and the Medical Council of the Royal Jennerian Society. By Joseph Simmons. 12mo. 1s. Highley. 1803.

We were much surprized that a publication should come forwards, at this time, to recommend inoculation for the small-pox; and more particularly that it should be inscribed to a body of men who have united their exertions to eradicate that disease. We soon found, however, that the author is a champion for vaccine inoculation; and that by singular inattention, the word *small* has been inserted in the title page for *Cow* pox.

The five arguments, or rather heads, under which the author's recommendatory observations are contained, are the following:

'1. The parliamentary sanction which Vaccination has received:'—

'2. The high respectability and undoubted disinterestedness of the persons by whom the practice is recommended to general adoption:'—

'3. The truly important nature of the objects to be effected by it:'—

'4. The certainty of its suitableness to attain those objects; and the futility of the objections raised against it:'—

'5. And lastly, as a consequent deduction from the whole, the duty of compliance with it.'

The illustration of each of these heads is sufficiently obvious, and therefore needs not be stated.

Art. 15. *An Address to Parents and Guardians of Children and others*, on Variolous and Vaccine Inoculations. By John Coakley Lettsom, M.D. &c. 8vo. 6d. Mawman. 1803.

This is a popular persuasion to Vaccine Inoculation, which has long been before the public in different shapes. It may be regarded as a proof of the zeal and philanthropy of the author.

Another pamphlet on this subject, but of a controversial nature, as relating to various critical opinions on Dr. L.'s productions, has lately appeared: but we must decline to take any specific notice of it, since we observe nothing in it that calls for our attention.

Art. 16. *A Series of Engravings, explaining the Course of the Nerves.* By Charles Bell, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1803.

These engravings are in the author's usual style of correctness and elegance; and they may therefore be regarded as a valuable acquisition

tion to the medical library. We must observe, however, that several errors occur in the explanations, which we may presume to be sanctioned by the author, because there is no table of errata. We may give, as examples, opthalmic for ophthalmic, corda for chorda, acaustic for acoustic, tibiei for tibiæ, &c.

Art. 17. *Cases of the Successful Practice of Vesicæ Lotura, for the Cure of diseased Bladders.* Part I. 2d Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Becket.

Art. 18. *Cases of the Successful Practice of Vesicæ Lotura for the Cure of diseased Bladders,* with a Plate of the Apparatus. Also, Cases of diseased Affections from Phymosis, with a Description of a New Mode of Operating for its Cure, and a Plate of the Instrument for performing it. Part II. By Jesse Foot, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Becket, 1803.

In the first edition of the first part of these cases, which was noticed by us some time ago *, the author brought forwards one example from Le Dran, and four from his own practice, to prove the successful employment of the Vesicæ Lotura. To these, which are now reprinted, he adds in the second part thirteen instances in confirmation of the good effects resulting from that mode of treatment, in certain diseases of the bladder. In many cases which fell under his own observation, he was disposed to consider the urinary affection as brought on, or maintained, by a natural phymosis; and in such cases, of which four are detailed, he thinks that the symptoms are only to be removed by an operation. The cure of phymosis has generally been effected by a complete division of the prepuce up to or beyond the glans: but the author conceives this to be perfectly unnecessary, and therefore recommends the operation to be thus performed:

'About the sixth of an inch of the outer cutis, is to be divided from within outward; so that the point of the knife shall be seen passing out, and dividing about one sixth of an inch of the outer cutis: and this is all of the outer cutis that needs to be divided. This will naturally enable as much of the cutis as is divided, to be slid back; when only the duplicature will present itself; as much as does present itself must be divided in the same manner. This will allow fresh undivided duplicature to present itself, which is also to be divided after the same manner; and so on, till the whole is thus divided, and till the whole can be slid back behind the glans penis, leaving it completely denudated.

'The treatment of the part is to be according to the principles of common surgery.'

A plate accompanies the second part, in which the apparatus for injecting the bladder, and a small knife, with a bill-hook, such as is to be used in the operation of phymosis above described, are delineated.

* See M. R. vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 338.

LAW.

Art. 19. *The Rules of Evidence on Pleas of the Crown*; illustrated from printed and MS. Cases. By Leonard MacNally, Esq. Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. bound. Butterworth. 1803.

We are equally convinced with the author of these volumes, that great importance attaches to rules of evidence, and that it is essential to the prosperity of the state that they should be accurately defined and scrupulously observed. As the late Lord Kenyon declared, "Our lives, our Liberty and our property, are concerned in the support of them;" and, impressed with these ideas, we consider a work, which fully and ably discusses a subject of such consequence, as a desideratum to the Profession. We are aware of different publications which have incidentally, and others which have avowedly, undertaken the investigation of this most important topic of our law: but, if something has been accomplished, much has been left to be effected by the industry of future writers.

Mr. Mac Nally has availed himself largely of the labours of his predecessors, and has also introduced many instances of his own professional experience; referring us to several trials in Ireland for a confirmation of rules, which have never for the last century been questioned in England. In the chapter on the Comparison of Handwritings, the case of *Cary* against *Pitt*, reported by Mr. Peake, is omitted; in which Lord Kenyon declared the evidence of an inspector of franks at the Post-Office to be inadmissible, who was called to prove that he had frequently seen franks pass the Office in the defendant's name; and that, from the character in which these franks were usually written, he believed the acceptance on a bill of exchange to be the defendant's hand-writing, though he had never seen the defendant write, nor had ever received any letters from him.—In the subsequent case of *Rex* v. *Cator*, in which the defendant was indicted for an anonymous libel, two persons in the Post-Office were admitted to prove that the libels produced were not written in a natural but in a disguised hand: though such testimony had been rejected by Lord Kenyon in the former case: who observed "that, though such evidence was received in *Revett* v. *Braham*, he had in his charge to the jury laid no stress upon it." When, however, these clerks of the Post-Office were asked whether they could say that the libels were of the same hand-writing with certain letters of the defendant then produced, the counsel for the defendant objected; and Mr. Baron Hotham, who tried the cause, determined that the question was improper. This particular point is also unnoticed by our author; who, from the omission of these later authorities, has not stated the law with that distinctness and certainty which he might easily have obtained. Indeed, though this production may in some cases be consulted with advantage, we think that it betrays too many marks of haste, and too many instances of inaccuracy, to deserve implicit confidence.

Art. 20. *The Solicitor's Practice on the Crown-Side of the Court of King's Bench.* With an Appendix containing the Forms of the Pro-

Proceedings, &c. By William Hands, Solicitor. 8vo. pp. 536. 10s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1803.

About eighty pages of this large work are given to the consideration of the practice on the Crown-side of the Court of King's Bench, and the remainder is occupied with precedents, which may be found in many other productions. Mr. Hands, in his preface, intimates an opinion that at a future time this compilation may appear in a more perfect and comprehensive form. All that is necessary for so desirable a purpose may be obtained by diligence and attention; and when we see these qualities exerted by the author, we shall readily bestow that praise which, on the present occasion, we are compelled to withhold.

Art. 21. *A brief View of the Consequences of Imprisonment for Debt*, to the different Relations of Creditor and Debtor, and to Society; with Observations on a Mode of Amelioration. Addressed to the Right Honourable Henry Addington. By a Prisoner. 4to. pp. 32. Bell. 1803.

This is a very hasty and declamatory performance, from which no instruction can be collected, because the writer is in many instances completely unintelligible.

Art. 22. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of King's Bench*; with Tables of the Names of Cases and principal Matters. By Edward Hyde East, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. II. Containing the Cases in the 42d Year of George III. 1801—1802. Royal 8vo. pp. 620. 1l. 2s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

In our 37th vol. N. S. will be found an account of the first volume of these Reports; and the present is a continuation precisely on the same plan. It contains several important cases; and, among the rest, that of *Haycraft* against *Creasy*, which came before the Court in consequence of the celebrated Miss Robertson's impositions. In this curious cause, three judges determined, contrary to the opinion of Lord Kenyon, that the strongest representation that a particular person was intitled to credit is not the ground of an action, if made *bonâ fide*, though the plaintiff be injured in consequence of the party *not* having been intitled to credit; the foundation of such an action being fraud and deceit in the defendant, as well as damage to the plaintiff.

Mr. East has published the first number of his third volume.

Art. 23. *A Treatise of Testaments and last Wills*; compiled out of the Laws Ecclesiastical, Civil, and Canon; as also out of the Common Laws, Customs, and Statutes of this Realm. By Henry Swinburne, some time Judge of the Prerogative Court of York. The Seventh Edition. With the valuable Annotations, illustrative of the Subject to the present Time, of the late John Joseph Powell, Esq. Barrister at Law, Author of the Law of Mortgages, &c. Prepared for the Press by James Wake, Esq. Barrister at Law. 3 Vols. 8vo. Clarke and Sons. 1803.

This work first made its appearance in 4to, in the year 1590, and the sixth edition was published in the year 1743, some time before

we commenced that literary career in which we have now been engaged for more than half a century. As it is a production of considerable value, and is frequently cited in our different courts as a book of authority, we trust that we shall be excused by our readers for now giving a short character of it, at this distance of time. The learning and ability of Dr. Swinburne, however, are too well known, and his reputation as a writer is too well established, to require any detailed account of his treatise. It contains information on a great variety of topics, and indicates a mind shrewd and discriminating, although not wholly untinctured with pedantry. The work is, moreover, diffuse and redundant, and is interspersed with a number of trifling and foolish stories, which bespeak the author to have been strangely credulous, and which serve only to increase the size while they diminish the real value of the book. The present edition is, with all the superfluities of the original writer, preferable to the last; which, as Mr. Wake justly intimates in his advertisement, was greatly mutilated, and its meaning frequently perverted. At the same time, we are of opinion that the book, restored as it is, will be convenient only as a work of reference, its obsolete and prolix style rendering it unfit for general perusal.

With regard to the notes of the late Mr. Powell, which are written in the same manner as his professed treatises, they form an useful addition to this learned writer. It appears, however, evident that the annotations were left imperfect at his death; the editor having deemed it expedient to make large and copious extracts from Mr. Toller's volume of the Law of Executors *, without the smallest acknowlegement of the assistance thence derived. The note from p. 651 to p 654. and the note p. 659. *cum plurimis aliis*, are literally transcribed from the *Law of Executors*, without any reference. Such a practice demands animadversion.

Art. 24. *A Treatise on the Functions and Duties of a Constable*; containing Details and Observations interesting to the Public, as they relate to the Corruption of Morals, and the Protection of the peaceful Subject against Penal and Criminal Offences. By P. Colquhoun, Esq. LL.D. a Magistrate acting for the Counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex, for the City and Liberty of Westminster, and for the Liberty of the Tower of London. 8vo. pp. 90. Mawman. 1803.

The office of constable is of very great antiquity, for the statute of Winchester, which passed in the 13th year of Edward I. (A.D. 1285), notices these officers, and directs the number to be chosen in each hundred. The trust reposed in them is considerable, embraces a great variety of objects, and its proper discharge is intimately connected with the best interests of society; so that it is of the utmost importance, as Mr. C. observes, that able, prudent, and intelligent individuals should be selected for the purpose.—Much useful knowlege is contained in this pamphlet, which may be considered as a supplement to this gentleman's other productions on the subject of police.

* See M. R. vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 155.

Art.

Art. 25. *A Narrative and authentic Report of the Proceedings at the Election for Knights of the Shire for the County of Norfolk*, from its Commencement, July 12th, to the Close of the Scrutiny on the 28th August, 1802. 8vo. pp. 100. 2s. Butterworth.

This publication records several curious particulars relative to the contested election for the county of Norfolk, some of which are interesting to the general reader, as well as to the parties concerned in the dispute.

Art. 26. *Term Reports in the Court of King's Bench*, from Michaelmas Term 35th George III. 1794, to Trinity Term 40th George III. 1800, both inclusive. By Charles Durnford and Edward Hyde East, Esqrs. Barristers at Law. A new Edition, corrected, with additional References. Royal 8vo. Vols. VI. VII. & VIII. 19s. each, Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

We noticed the appearance of the fifth volume of these Reports in their present commodious size in our 33d volume, N. S., and have now only to inform our readers that the whole series of the Term Reports from Michaelmas Term 1785, to the end of Trinity Term 1800, is included in eight octavo volumes.

POETIC.

Art. 27. *Beneficence:* or, Verses addressed to the Patrons of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor. By Thomas Alston Warren, B.D. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

We might be said to return *Maleficence* for Beneficence, were we to intimate that, for the well-intentioned poem before us, the author 'deserved to be tortured on the wheel or exposed on the gibbet of criticism;' yet we may be allowed, on this as on other occasions, to lament that genius does not always smile on virtue; and that truth restrains us from commendation when it would be gratifying to bestow it. Poetry is a species of composition which is never tolerated by good judges unless it rises above mediocrity. "*Orationi et carmini est parva gratia*, as the Younger Pliny observes, *nisi eloquentia est summa.*" How often must we repeat that it is not lines consisting of a certain number of syllables, rhyming in couplets or in alternate stanzas, which constitutes a poem: but that it requires brilliancy of thought, elegance of diction, and a beauty of finishing like that which an artist would give to a cabinet picture.

The Muse has frequently delighted in depicting the pleasures of humble rural life. Mr. Warren describes the happiness of the cottager in these stanzas:

'Happy the Cottager, whose field,
As much you urge, a Cow contains;
Her balmy stores shall plenty yield,
And Profit smiling count her gains.

'Happy, if his the haulm rick dry,
The vine which annual yields repast,
The wood pile neatly built, and high,
The orchard shelter'd from the blast.

'Whilst to his casement climbs the rose,
Grac'd with the jasmine's starry vest;
His roof the tufted house-leek shews,
His door, the martin's hallow'd nest.

'In yonder shed his pig reclines,
His bees work *singing* 'neath that bow'r;
And his small garden's well-wrought mines
Yield the rich herb, the fruit and flow'r.

'Thus many a blessing home bestows,
Whilst what he wants or wishes more
Is cheaply purchas'd there, where shows
The village-shop its useful store.

'Thither at stated time he hies,
And smiles o'er all his bargain'd ware,
To think, that in his glad surprize
A grateful family shall share.

'Nor small advantage he receives
From the parochial windmill's clack;
No toll is sought, no fraud deceives,
But fair and full returns the sack.

'Taught kindly now, the Housewife knows
Her arts with surer skill to ply,
Her narrow'd chimney warmer glows,
Her soup is rich, her rice swells high.'

To the accuracy of this delineation we cannot object, unless we should observe that *humming* is more appropriate to bees than *singing*; and that *herbs*, *fruits*, and *flowers*, are not the produce of *mines*: but, how many such verses might a modern Lucilius spin in a day?

Art. 28. *Carminum Rariorum Macaronicorum Delectus. Fasciculus Secundus.* 8vo. Pamphlet. Edinburgh. 1802.

We expressed some apprehension, in our review of the former number of this collection, (see Vol. xxxix. N.S. p. 329.) that from the nature of its contents it might be coldly received by the public, especially on this side of the Tweed. The number before us contains more various matter, and is not limited to Macaronic poetry, strictly so called. It includes a translation of Ramsay's *Monk and the Miller's Wife*, into Latin rhyme; a Latin version of the *Song on the Battle of Gillicranky*; and a re-publication of *the Wife of Auchtermuchty*, of which the editor recommends a Latin translation, to preserve its 'beauties.' These beauties, however, such as they are, have been made sufficiently accessible to the English reader, by the version of the facetious Tom Brown.—We next meet with an English Hudibrastic poem on the studies of *John Brosy*; a local satire, which general readers cannot be supposed to relish.—An epitaph on a late professor in Edinburgh (Dr. Young) has not, we believe, been previously published:

'EPITAPH

'EPITAPH ON A CELEBRATED PROFESSOR OF MIDWIFERY, who, after having faithfully discharged the most important duties of a Married Man for near half a century, died childless.

MEMORIÆ
X Y.
In Academia Edinburgena
Artis obstetricæ quondam Professoris,
Qui
Lucinam sine Venere,
Venerem sine Lucina,
Coluit:
Filios post mille
Reipublicæ datos,
Eheu!
Sine Liberis decessit.
Bella inter intestina
Manu forti,
Sed sine Marte,
Liberatoris
Nomen adeptus est.
Respicite Matres,
Prospicite Virgines,
et lugete!'

Other epitaphs follow, some jocular and others serious: the following is elegant, but certainly not *Macaronic*.

'EPITAPH ON DAVID DOEG, LL D. Written by himself, and engraved on a Monument erected to his Memory after his death, in the Churchyard of Stirling, at the public expence.

Fui
DAVID DOEG,
Scholæ Latinæ apud Sterlinenses,
Per XL annos Præpositus.

Edidici quædam, perlegi plura, notavi
Paucula; cum Domino mox peritura suo.
Lubrica Pieriæ captabam præmia palmæ,
Credulus, ingenio heu nimis alta meo!
Extincto, famam ruituro crescere saxo,
Posse putem? vivo, quæ mihi nullo fuit.
Non omnis moriar; ridebit munus inane
Carminis ac tumuli, spiritus alta petens.'

The number concludes with a parody on Phillips's Translation of Sappho's Ode, said to be written by an eminent Barrister; and published, as we well remember, upwards of twenty years ago, in one of the Magazines.

It would be a task deserving great encouragement to attempt the recovery of those practical *jeux d'esprit* which the long and successful cultivation of literature in Scotland must have produced. How many epigrams and ballads may have been locked up in port-folios, from the dread of political animosities which are now happily done

away! We beg leave to suggest these hints to the consideration of the present ingenious editor.

Art. 29. *John and Dame;* or the Loyal Cottagers. By Mr. Pratt. 12mo, 4d. 8vo. or 1s. 6d. R. Phillips.

The sentiments of the Loyal Cottagers, and of their poetic historian, are worthy of cordial praise: but we cannot compliment our old acquaintance on the success which has here attended his visit to the Olympian Mount. Many of his lines are deficient even in the common observance of grammar.

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *Reflections on the present Crisis of Public Affairs.* By Charles Tweedie, F.A.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

——— "What we would highly,
That would we holily."

Being not less alive to the preservation of our national Honour than to that of our national Independence, we must be as solicitous to refute the calumny of our enemy as to defeat all his attempts to subdue us. Several writers have already drawn the pen in this warfare, to which list we are now to add the name of Mr Tweedie; who not only undertakes to exculpate Great Britain from the charge of perfidy for retaining Malta, but to shew that it is a measure as much approved by Policy as demanded by Justice. He contends that the Order of St. John of Jerusalem could not possibly be placed in that state of Independence, which the articles of the Treaty of Amiens required; and that to surrender it to the miserable remains of the Order, with its property diminished by confiscation since the signature of the Treaty, would be in effect to surrender it to France, against which event it was the evident object of every stipulation to guard. The avowed purposes of France respecting Egypt, and the East, are urged as farther sufficient reasons for our refusing to surrender Malta: but we must excuse ourselves from detailing these arguments, because, though they be judicious, they are not new. Mr. T. denies that Malta is the cause of the war, and regards it only as the point at which we made a stand against a series of insults, and resolved on asserting our national dignity. By Bonaparte's public declaration that "England alone cannot maintain a struggle against France," menace was substituted for negociation, and concession on our part could only have been regarded as cowardice. At the question of Malta, the enemy would not have stopped: but demand would have followed demand, till at last, perhaps, he would have required that all our men of war should have been given up to him as the price of the continuance of peace. To such a peace, however, who would not prefer war? It is better to meet the foe, and even to perish in the conflict, than to live by his sufferance, enchained and insulted. To all threats, the British Nation can make but one reply. It wishes to cultivate peace and to fulfil its engagements with surrounding states: but it will never brook the idea of being driven to any measure by an hostile bayonet.

Convinced

Convinced that the war is unavoidable and just, Mr. T. recommends the prosecution of it with vigour. He would not wait for the attack, but would prevent it, and turn the assailant into the defender. He thinks that, in the present state of Europe, war is to be preferred to peace; in as much as, with the stupendous power which France now possesses, a treaty cannot be concluded with safety and advantage. In short, it is his decided opinion that the only thing which can save us is—War! *Non ego* (says he, in the words of Cicero) *pacem nolo, sed, pacis nomine,* BELLUM INVOLUTUM *reformido.* That the bloody recipé of war may be cheerfully adopted, he prophetically assures us that it will lead to 'the foundation of a new epoch in the history of Europe.' "Proceed, bright days!"

Art. 31. *Thoughts on the Invasion threatened by Bonaparte:* With Notes illustrative of many unknown Crimes committed by the different Members of the Consular Government. Translated from the French of E. M., One of the Chiefs of the Royalist Party in the South of France. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

This pamphlet professes to come from the pen of a young Frenchman, who represents himself as 'having scarcely commenced his career of life,' and yet as having been the royalist chief in the South of France. In one respect it bears the stamp of youth; since vehemence unchastised by discretion is its prominent character. The author is what Dr. Johnson would call "a very good hater:" his indignation against Bonaparte boils over in almost every period; and, that he might not be suspected of any ill judged lenity, he charges him with every description of vice. So much is he in a rage against the French regicides, that he almost forgets the title of his pamphlet, and is more occupied with enforcing the idea that 'the entire destruction of the French Government is as important as the fall of those men who now hold the reins,' than with our threatened danger. From such an intemperate writer, the British nation wants no advice. John Bull, in case of Invasion, must depend on his own good sense and courage.

Art. 32. *The Danger of Invasion, and the Means of Defence, fairly estimated;* with a few Remarks submitted to the Consideration of Government and of the Public. By a Military Officer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Unlike the foregoing most passionate declamation, the pamphlet now before us is temperate, rational, and directed to the point in view, viz. 'to quiet the minds of the people, as well as to rouse them to a sense of the real danger' When in 1719 a rumour of Invasion prevailed, the Great Duke of Marlborough gave it, in council, as his decided opinion that the attempt was so hazardous that he questioned whether it would be made, and that, if made, it could be easily defeated. In subsequent periods of alarm from the same quarter, similar reports have been presented to government by military men of great knowlege and experience. Yet, under the peculiar circumstances of France, it would be absurd in us to depend too much on the extreme difficulties or hazards which must attend such an enterprise. As this writer advises, regard must be had

not only to plans of *probable* but to plans of *possible* execution, and provision must be made against both. It is his opinion 'that the enemy, setting all difficulties at defiance, will attempt his favourite object, if there be the least remissness or relaxation in our preparations to receive him:' but we are resolved to give him no hope from this quarter. The nation is roused; and with 'a population of fifteen millions, with such resources in ability, public spirit, national wealth, and local circumstances, it seems fitted to defy not only France, but the world in arms.' We cannot detail the professional hints presented by this writer, relative to arming, drilling, and general tactics: but they appear to us to be judicious. We contemplate with satisfaction the alacrity of our warriors, both as it does honour to the spirit of the country, and as it diminishes the chances of Invasion.

Art 33. *An Appeal from the Passions to the Sense of the Country, upon Buonaparté and Invasion.* 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

After having offered the most enthusiastic praise to the abilities and merits of Mr Pitt, this writer proceeds to his professed subject. Though confident of repelling the enemy, he does not wish to see him land, and thinks that every exertion should be made to prevent it. He is a strenuous advocate for a regular military force, in preference to the measure of arming the people; as, on Dr. Smith's principle of the division of labour, it is best for a state that soldiers should be soldiers,—weavers, weavers,—and farmers, farmers.

Art. 34. *A Candid Appeal to Public Confidence;* or, Considerations on the actual and imaginary Dangers of the present Crisis. By T. M. Moore, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

One sentence will display Mr. Moore's opinion. 'The difficulties which are inseparable from the execution of any plan of Invasion, and those with which the enemy must be surrounded, should their attempt succeed in the first instance, are so great and so manifold, that, as long as we exhibit the formidable aspect of an armed nation, we may be justified in considering them as insuperable.' From a comparison of the resources of France with those of Great Britain, and from a consideration of the British character, arguments are drawn in support of public confidence; yet, while Mr. M. protests against despondency, he cautions his countrymen against being supine.

Art. 35. *What have we to fight for?* An Address to the Freeholders of Middlesex, who met at the Crown and Anchor Tavern on July 29, 1803, to celebrate the last Election of Members of Parliament for that County, On their Duty as Britons, at the present important Crisis. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The motto, "*Awake! Arise! or be for ever fall'n!*" manifests that the tendency of this pamphlet is equally patriotic with those which we have just noticed. The object of the writer is to reply to the *singular* speech of Sir F. Burdett, which excited such general disapprobation. In answer to the question *What have we to fight for?* it is replied, 'We have to fight for the preservation of a great Commu-

nity, which exhibits a finer spectacle of intellectual and moral worth, than has ever been exhibited from the first "syllable of recorded time." For the preservation of such an object, Britons will no doubt '*quit themselves like men.* Indeed, this writer expands his views beyond the boundaries of mere local and patriotic attachment. He considers this country as the last retreat of the Liberty of Europe, and as the citadel of the civilization and order of all nations. Thus are we represented as fighting not only for ourselves but for the world, in as much as the Independence of Nations is bound up in the issue of this great quarrel. Are surrounding states, then, so infatuated, that they look on as calm spectators, and do not unite with us in a cause which is as much theirs as our own?

Art. 36. *A Letter to a Roman Catholic Gentleman of Ireland*, on the Chief Consul Bonaparte's projected Invasion. By Charles Butler, Esq. 8vo. 3d. White.

Mr. Butler (the well-known and respectable conveyancer, of Lincoln's Inn) offers it as his own opinion that, after all the vauntings and threats of Bonaparte, he must make the attempt to invade us; being impelled to this measure by his feelings, his interest, and the circumstances of the times. He then represents the miserably subversive consequences which would result from his success, and urges this fair statement as a strong reason for vigour and united resistance against the invading enemy. He reminds the Catholics of Ireland of the obligations which they owe to his present Majesty, and bids them reflect on the loss which they must sustain by exchanging his government for that of Consular France.

Art. 37. *An Appeal to the public Spirit of Great Britain.* By Charles Marsh, Esq., Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

In this as in many other pamphlets of the same nature and the same laudable tendency, which are now issuing in legions from the press, the public are invited to consider well the species of enmity which we are to encounter, to estimate its peculiar character and dangers, and to disdain that creeping sentiment which calculates privations and personal sacrifices, when a gigantic evil threatens to overwhelm the whole community. Mr. Marsh labours to rouse the *amor patriæ* of his countrymen, and their indignation against the foe, to the highest pitch; and if his ardent zeal degenerates at times into verbose declamation, it is a fault which criticism cannot, on the present occasion, presume to censure with rigour. The general apology of every political writer must now be, *Quis teneat se?*

Art. 38. *The grand Contest deliberately considered*; or a View of the Causes and probable Consequences of the threatened Invasion of Great Britain. With a Sketch of the Life and Actions of the First Consul; particularly since the Peace of 1802. Addressed to Britons. By Francis Blagdon, Esq. To which are subjoined, Notes Historical and Explanatory, and a British War-song, set to Music, for the Piano-Forté, by the Author. 8vo. 1s. Vernor and Hood.

Mr.

Mr. Blagdon honestly confesses his opinion to be that some kind of licence is allowable to the political champion. 'A writer (says he) who takes up his pen in defence of his *God* *, his Country, and his King, may boldly exert himself according to his fancy, without adhering to pedantic rules.' We admit this privilege to a certain extent: but, if 'the exercise of the quill must keep pace with that of the firelock,' in the present contest, writers as well as soldiers should have a pride in displaying correct discipline; they should fire with precision, and be sure that *every shot tells.* Though we applaud Mr. B.'s spirit, and the tendency of his pamphlet, he would have been improved as a political writer, if he had taken a lesson or two from drill-serjeant *Discretion.* We agree with him in his representations of the momentous nature of the contest, and commend his ardour against Bonaparte as the inveterate enemy of this country: but we cannot approve of his recommending assassination, or that 'a large reward be offered for the Consul's head to any individual who may have resolution enough to kill him.' Let the war of Britons be lawful in its means as well as just in its object. If the sword, which, as Mr. B. observes, must be the arbiter of the dispute, is to be drenched deep in the blood of our enemies, before peace can return to us, let it be so wielded that it may be crowned with honour. Let us prepare to perish rather than survive with ignominy: but let us fight and die like Britons. He who fights for God should not turn assassin.

Art. 39. *Invasion defeated.* By the Author of "The State of Things for 1803." 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

Short but pithy. The author represents the danger of Invasion as *certain, great,* and *near;* calls on us to oppose it by means, *great, prompt,* and *united;* and encourages us with the hope that, if we patriotically exert ourselves, we shall, under God, effectuate our own deliverance, and establish the Liberties of Mankind.

Art. 40. *A Plan for the safe Removal of Inhabitants, not Military,* from Towns and Villages on the Coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, in the Case of the threatened Invasion: With Reflections calculated to hasten Preparations for that Measure. By J. Lettice, D D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke.

To be prepared at all points and in all respects for the threatened Invasion is sound policy, and every hint serving to this end ought to be gratefully received. The attention of Dr. Lettice has been directed to a very necessary measure, in case of an actual landing of the enemy on our coasts, and his suggestions merit the consideration of the maritime parishes: but it appears to us that he should not only have adverted to the removal of inhabitants and their most valuable and necessary effects, but should also have recommended that

* There is a degree of impiety in declaring ourselves the Defenders of *God.* A creature may be engaged in defending the *cause* of God, which every one does who aids the cause of religion and virtue: but God himself cannot be defended by us.

some

some provision should be made in each house in the inland parishes, for the reception and accommodation of the fugitives; since the contest with the enemy may be more protracted than he supposes. The great difficulty would be to prevail on whole towns to leave their property behind them, and to fly with only 'a few wooden spoons and trenchers.'—It may be advisable to make the country around the enemy a wilderness: but this must be effected by the military under the order of government. Great confusion must await the flight of terrified multitudes, which scarcely any plan can entirely prevent; yet, if it can be obviated in some measure, so far good will be gained.

Art. 41. *The Loss of Power, Commerce, and Liberty;* or the Three sure Consequences of a successful Invasion. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

It is the opinion of this writer (and an opinion perhaps not destitute of truth), that we have fallen into a political error, in directing an almost exclusive attention to the *personal* character of the First Consul of France; when we ought chiefly to have considered that the result of success on the part of the enemy must equally be the loss of all that is valuable to us, whatever may be the government of France, or whoever may administer it. Without loading Bonaparte with any foul and unqualified personal abuse, which is rather an indication of weakness than of true magnanimity, the author developes the nature of the Consul's enmity, and its sure consequences (if not resisted and defeated), in a manner that is sufficient to excite every spark of patriotism against him. Whether Bonaparte be regarded by his vassals as "a spirit of health or goblin damn'd," is to us a matter of inferior moment. In the character of an Invader of our shores, he must be odious; and, unless successfully resisted, he will overwhelm them with curses. These are sufficient reasons for our present exertions.

Art. 42. *An Address to the People of Ireland* who are unfriendly to the British Government. By G. Clark. 8vo. 3d. Ginger.

The object of this address is to induce the Irish to be contented, by endeavouring to convince them that they must be great losers if severed from Great Britain and placed under the power of France. There is more truth in the author's arguments designed to prove this statement, than in his assertion that Bonaparte exacted from the small territory of Milan *six hundred millions sterling!!* This is more than the whole national debt of England; and a sum not to be collected by the pillage of one half of Europe.

Art 43. *An Address to the Richmond Volunteers*, assembled in the Parish Church of Richmond, in Surrey, August 29, and Sept. 2, 1803, to take the Oath of Allegiance. By Thomas Wakefield, B. A. Minister of Richmond. 8vo. 6d. Hurst.

That oaths are often administered with little solemnity, and taken with much levity and thoughtlessness, is a truth which must afflict the Christian and the Patriot with the deepest concern. Mr. Wakefield has laudably exerted himself to prevent this evil. He explains to the Richmond Volunteers the awful nature of an oath, exposes the sin

sin of profane swearing, and exhorts them with religious seriousness to espouse the cause of their King and Country.

Art. 44. *Footsteps of Blood;* or the March of the Republicans: being a Display of the horrid Cruelties and unexampled Enormities committed by the French Republican Armies in all Parts of the World, &c. &c. 8vo. 10d. Hatchard.

TORRENTS *of Blood* might have been the title chosen by the compiler of this pamphlet; which exhibits such a detail of enormities, ascribed to the French on the authority of various writers (here quoted), as must sicken the heart of man, and make him sigh over the depravity of human nature. If there exists an Englishman who would welcome, or even would be slow in opposing, the visits of French Invaders, let him contemplate this picture, and view the horrid precipice on which he stands.

Art. 45. *Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Pelham,* on the State of Mendicity in the Metropolis. By Matthew Martin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

We are pleased to find that this subject has engaged the attention of Government. Mendicity classes among the opprobria of civilized states; and it is an indication of defect in the body politic, which generates a train of vices. Poverty cannot be altogether banished, since equality of property is impossible; yet poverty and beggary are not necessarily co-existent. There is a duty owing to the poor, and if that duty be performed it will restrain and secure them from becoming mendicants. 'The poor are, collectively, the wards of the state,' towards whom a considerable degree of vigilance ought to be extended. Our system of Poor-management is, at present, so very defective, and the intention of the 43d of Elizabeth, which provides *only* for the *aged* and *impotent* poor, is so completely overlooked, that the attention of the Legislature is imperiously demanded to this subject; and they should revise the whole code of laws respecting the poor, and provide effectually against the mismanagement of the funds appropriated for their relief.

It is ascertained by Mr. M. that the majority of Mendicants are parish paupers; who are driven, he conjectures, to a state of Beggary, by the practice of refusing relief to paupers out of the workhouse: but it is admitted that there are certain general causes, such as voluntary idleness or delinquency. Beggars are of two classes, the occasional and the systematic; the former are objects of pity, the latter of correction. Common Beggars, who make a trade of extorting alms, are the pest of Society; they live in a constant lie; they make fictitious demands on benevolence; and they are enabled, by their impositions on the humane, to exist in idleness and profligacy. These wretches desire not Mr. Martin's interference; since, if effectual measures were taken to remove the disgrace of mendicity, the *trade and occupation of begging* would be at an end.

Considerable pains have been taken by Mr. Martin to ascertain facts; and towards defraying his expences, two warrants of 500l.* each

* By the account given at the end of this pamphlet, it appears that the fees to Clerks, &c. on receiving 500l. out of the Treasury, amount to 33l. 17s. 3d. or nearly 7 per cent. ! ! !

were

were issued to him by the Lords of the Treasury. He seems to have proceeded with much discretion, as well as gentleness; observing that, though 'the vices of Mendicants may deserve correction, their miseries should excite pity, and engage the endeavours of their fellow-creatures to trace the sources of the evil, and by amending their moral habits stop its progress.' From his examination, Mr. M. was led to believe that Mr. Colquhoun, in his "Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis," has underrated the number of Common Beggars and Vagrants asking alms," at 3000: he ventures to estimate them at nearly double this number; and, including children, he states them to amount to about 15,288. Hence it appears that Mendicity is an evil of much extent. For a remedy, he proposes a Board of Inquiry into the cases of Beggars in the Metropolis; the division of it into five districts, with a commissioner to each district; and that an account of their proceedings should be annually submitted to parliament. The plan of proceeding for the disposal of *Parochial Beggars of Home Parishes*, of *Beggars of distant Parishes*, and of *Non-parochial Beggars*, (the three classes into which they are divided,) is briefly detailed; and hope is expressed that the whole craft of Street-beggary in the Metropolis may by these means be abolished. Some attempts ought, doubtless, to be made, to effect so desirable an object.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 46. *Nascita, Carattere, e Alcuni Fatti Notabili di Luigi XVI. Re di Francia. Sua Prigonia nel Tempio, tradotta dal Giornale del Sigr. Clery, Cameriere del Re. Con una breve Appendice al Giornale.* 8vo. pp. 232. Printed at Oxford, 1802.

This work is politely dedicated by the anonymous author to the Hon. Mrs. Ellis; and a sensible and ingenious Preface then introduces us to an ingenious simile, illustrating a comparison between the renovating ashes of the phœnix and the immortal flame of virtue, which rises triumphant, refined, and exalted, from the darkest shades of persecuted calamity. Often as we have read the afflicting tragedy of Louis the Sixteenth, we still find our sensations the same: but, having before spoken on the affecting and simple detail contained in the journal of the faithful *Clery**, we have only now to remark on its present appearance in Italian. This sweet language is so well calculated by its harmonious accents for the pathetic, that numerous passages in this translation may be said to have derived additions both of elegance and pathos; and in the part of the work intitled *Notizie Preliminari al Giornale*, we meet with many amusing anecdotes of the early and later years of this unfortunate monarch. The volume is handsomely printed, and is ornamented by a well-executed engraving of Louis XVI.

Art. 47. *The Lives of the most Eminent Painters*, from the Year 1250, when the Art of Painting was revived by Cimabue, to the Year 1767: abridged from Pilkington. By Edward Shepard, D. D. late Rector of Bettiscomb, &c. 8vo. pp. 130. 3s. Jones. 1803.

The second edition of the work, of which this professes to be an abridgement, was noticed in our 25th volume, N. S., where we mentioned the additions that had been made to the original publication.

* See Rev. Vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 410.

Of

Of the present volume, it is out of our power to speak in terms of praise; the design, we think, was injudicious, and the execution is faulty.—The following meagre account and unjust and degrading character of Hogarth, whose original genius reflects so much credit on this country, will decidedly prove that the author of this volume cannot be commended either for accuracy of knowlege or for impartiality of representation:

'William Hogarth, died 1764, aged 66, painted Portraits and Comic Scenes. This genius was bound apprentice to a silver-smith, and was taught to engrave arms and ciphers. He engraved seventeen plates for an edition of Hudibras. His first distinguished work was a representation of Wanstead Assembly, the idea taken from life. He painted the Music-room at Vauxhall. His Harlot's and Rake's Progress introduced him into fame. In 1753, he published his Analysis of Beauty. His force lay in low caricatura subjects; he attempted historical subjects, but did not succeed. Witness his paintings in St. Mary Redcliff's church, Bristol.'

Is this all the praise that Hogarth merited; and can it truly be said of him, '*his force lay in low caricatura subjects?*' Dr. Shepard, however, declares that he 'pretends not to be a connoisseur.'—We are inclined to think, from this specimen, that he would have consulted his reputation if he had not pretended to have been an author.

Art. 48. *The Works of Thomas Chatterton* 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

This is a collected edition of the works 'of the most extraordinary young man (according to Mr. Southey the Editor) that ever appeared in this country;' with his Life, which has before passed under our review, from the pen of Dr. Gregory. We have on several occasions expressed our opinion regarding the productions of this singular and unfortunate character; and we willingly take an early opportunity of announcing a publication, which is benevolently intended for the benefit of the author's sister.

Art. 49. *Miscellanies by the late Daniel Webb, Esq.* 4to. pp. 330. 18s. Boards. Nichols and Son. 1802.

A recollection of the pleasure, with which we formerly perused the works of this very ingenious writer, induces us to impart the welcome information to our readers, that they are now collected into a handsome volume; which is embellished by a Frontispiece from the pencil of the ingenious Mr. William Lock.

Art. 50. *The Beauties of England and Wales;* or, Delineations Topographical, Historical, and Descriptive of each County; embellished with Engravings. By John Britton, and Edward Widlake Brayley. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 570. 1l. (L. P. 1l. 12s.) Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

An article in our last Volume, giving an account of the preceding parts of this publication, will have conveyed sufficient knowlege to our readers respecting its nature and design; and therefore it is only necessary for us on this occasion to state the contents of the Volume now before us.—The diligent and ingenious writers have been equally attentive in their researches relative to the Counties of Cumberland and

and Derby, and the Isle of Man; and their delineations will be found as exact and entertaining as those which were introduced into their former productions. Their information is selected with judgment from various writers, and the Views are mostly good likenesses, and well executed: but from this praise we are obliged to except the View of Northampton, which appears to us to be ill engraved, and to furnish an indistinct, if not an erroneous, idea of that neat and handsome town.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 51. *An Address to the Inhabitants of Britain*, founded on the Advice of Nehemiah to the Jews, in Neh. iv. 14. 8vo. 3d. or 2s. per Dozen. Ginger.

We have here an old sermon, adapted to the present times. It was, as the editor (Mr. Evans) informs us, originally composed by the late Mr. R. Noyes, and delivered by him at Cranbrook, Kent, Dec. 14, 1755, when the apprehension of an Invasion generally prevailed. Some alterations and omissions are made, to adapt it to suit the momentous crisis at which we are now arrived: but the old formal divisions are preserved; which, as well as one of the exhortations, may not be universally relished: 'Shake off your *fears*, O Britons! at such an awful prospect,' says the preacher; to which the country at large would be disposed to reply, "We have *no fears* to shake off; we prepare, but not with trembling." The discourse concludes with holding up to our imitation the magnanimity of a mother, who, when her son was going to battle, presented him with a shield; saying, "Bring this back, my son, as a Trophy; or be brought back on it as thy Bier."

Art. 52. *On Occasion of the threatened Invasion*, preached at Richmond, Surrey, July 31, and again, by Desire, Aug. 7, 1803. By Thomas Wakefield, B.A. Minister of Richmond. 8vo. 1s. Hurst.

When our country is menaced with destruction by an ambitious and powerful adversary, the exhortations of the Clergy should glow with patriotism, and "*to your tents, O Israel!*" should be sounded from the pulpit. To the honour of the Church be it said, that its ministers are not tardy on the present occasion, but have manifested great alertness in the discharge of this duty*. Mr. Wakefield evinces great temper as well as ardour, and marks his detestation of the wicked designs of the enemy, without degrading his profession and himself by that unrestrained and extravagant abuse, in which some persons, in eminent situations, have indulged themselves. Disclaiming all animosity against the Consul as Consul, or against Frenchmen as Frenchmen, he merely considers them as the enemies of his Country, and endeavours to assist his hearers in forming a lively apprehension of the dreadful consequences of their successful invasion of us; in order that every Briton may be prepared to resist them with unanimity and fortitude. In fine, he exhorts us to practise the virtues of our ancestors, and to display ourselves as that righteous nation, which the Moral Government of God uniformly exalts.

* Various discourses on this subject have just appeared, which we have not yet had time to peruse.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A Letter has been received from Mr. Hubbard, in relation to some parts of our notice of his pamphlet intitled "*The Triumph of Poesy*," in our last Review. He charges us with having done him injustice, by representing him to have been so devoid of taste as to have complimented Lord Lyttelton's poetry in preference to that of Gray; and as having committed an error in naming Hampton instead of Twickenham as the residence of Pope.

On the first point, we shall content ourselves with replying that no eulogy whatever, either directly or indirectly, is bestowed on Gray, while Hagley's *Classic Grove* is introduced where the poet Thomson sings of

'The Patriot's virtuous toils, *and Lucy's softer claim.*'

Surely it must be inferred that such a passage, in a poem on the Triumph of Poesy, was designed as a compliment to the Muse of Hagley, together with the praise of Lyttelton as a Patriot: though his triumphs as a poet do not constitute a separate theme.

On the other ground of dissatisfaction, Mr. H. says,

'The passage, where Hampton's vale is noticed, is evidently relative to The Rape of the Lock. The characters, who figure in that exquisite performance, are represented by the poet as going by water on a party of pleasure to Hampton Court. At *Hampton* the scene is laid; and there the unfortunate, or rather fortunate, rape was committed, which gave rise to the most beautiful poem of the kind that was ever written. These are the points, and these only, to which the stanza refers. It never entered into my own head, nor did I conceive it possible it could have entered into any other head, that it contained the remotest allusion to Pope's residence. It is surely no great stretch of poetical licence to say, that the strain rises from the spot or neighbourhood where the transactions, which it celebrates, took place;—

"Where Hampton's vale with Grecian Tempé vies,
A sprightlier strain emerges from the wave."—

In the stanzas allotted to the Triumph of Pope, his name is not introduced; he is only designated by a description of some of his poems, and *Hampton's Vale* will by most readers be supposed to refer to his place of residence. Mr. H. assures us that he meant otherwise: but, if he exerted a poetical licence in supposing the strain to arise from the place at which the scene is laid, and not from the dwelling of the poet, then, for the guidance of the reader, he ought to have subjoined a note. He is also offended with our '*squeamishness*' in objecting to *smit* instead of *smitten*, and quotes Milton as an authority for its use: in the same manner, he might have cited Pope in justification of *writ* for *written*, &c.: but, in the present age, our language is more grammaticized than it was in their times, and we must not allow errors to be quoted in justification of errors.

Various other Letters remain for consideration, which are unavoidably postponed.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. xli. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, *New Series*, is published with this Number.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1803.

ART. I. *An Account of the Island of Ceylon*, containing its History, Geography, Natural History, with the Manners and Customs of its various Inhabitants; to which is added, the Journal of an Embassy to the Court of Candy. Illustrated by a Map and Charts. By Robert Percival, Esq. of His Majesty's Nineteenth Regiment of Foot. 4to. pp. 420. 1l. 8s. Boards. Baldwins. 1803.

IF the prosperity of the British empire could be safely estimated by extent of foreign territory, we might, as true patriots, congratulate our country-men on the acquisition of Ceylon: but at any rate, as citizens of the world, we would rather see this important island subject to the mild and liberal government of the English, than to the jealous and harsh domination of its late masters. A writer addicted to political abstraction might, indeed, inquire how a war, undertaken for the maintenance of social order and the protection of the United Provinces, could justify our retention of such a valuable possession. Waving, however, all appeal to Grotius and Pufendorf, and to the varying casuistry of state-manifestoes, we shall vindicate Mr. Percival's silence (and our own) respecting the right of occupancy, by observing that an officer *has nothing to do with orders but to obey them*, and that reviewers have nothing to do with a book but to review it.

'During a residence of three years,' says Mr. P., 'I visited almost every part of the sea-coast; and before I left the island, I was become quite familiar with its general appearance, its natural productions, the present state of its cultivation, and the manners and dispositions of its inhabitants. On an embassy being sent to wait upon the native king of the island, I was also among those officers who were appointed to accompany it; and by this means had an opportunity of observing the interior of the country, into which the jealousy of the natives has seldom permitted any European to penetrate.

'The advantages which I derived from personally visiting the greater part of the island, were very much improved by the assistance of Mr. Dormieux, a Dutch gentleman, in the English service, who had resided upwards of twenty years in Ceylon, and had during that period acquired a complete knowledge both of the manners and language of its several inhabitants. By his means, there-

fore, I was enabled to get over many obstacles which presented themselves to my researches; and the valuable communications of several friends have rendered me essential service in completing my accounts of Ceylon. Still, however, I have been careful not to advance any fact of which I was not either an eye-witness, or which was not derived from information which no one could hesitate to believe. The manners and customs of the inhabitants, I have endeavoured to describe in the manner they impressed my mind at the time I observed them. I have followed the same plan in giving an account of the natural productions of the island; and hence my observations may be thought more calculated for the general reader, than the man of science. But I hope the public will make some allowance for the habits of my profession; and if I succeed in affording either amusement or instruction, I trust they will excuse a little deficiency in systematic knowledge.'

Previously to entering on a particular description of the island, the author briefly deduces its history from the accidental landing of Almeyda, in 1505, to the expulsion of the Portuguese by the Dutch, in 1656. In this rapid sketch, he contrasts the romantic prowess, the dark fanaticism, and the improvident policy of the first conquerors, with the undaunted perseverance, the commercial enterprize, and the wary proceedings of their successors. This considerate deportment of the republicans too soon gave way to a system of incroachment and oppression, which involved them in repeated and harassing acts of hostility with the natives; and which, by gradually undermining their influence, rendered them at last an easy prey to British valour.

The extreme length of Ceylon is here stated to be 300 miles, its breadth from 40 to 100, and its circumference 900. The appearance of the eastern coast is bald and rocky; but most of the flat tracts along the sea-shore are bounded by groves of cocoa-trees, while the intervening plains are chiefly laid down in rice; and the prospect usually terminates in ever-green woods, which cover the sides of the hills. The interior consists principally of high and steep mountains, clothed with forests or impervious jungles. The most elevated range, forming a partition of the island, occasions a striking diversity of seasons and climate on its opposite sides. The commencement of the Monsoons is attended by those torrents of rain and violent thunder-storms, which are so prevalent in tropical regions: but the heat on the coast is tempered by the circulation of the sea-breezes, and the absence of those land-winds which so frequently prove oppressive and suffocating on the Continent.

The principal harbours for large ships are *Trincomalee* and *Point de Galle*. At certain seasons of the year, there is also secure

secure mooring-ground in the roads of *Columbo*. There are various smaller ports for the reception of coasting vessels: but the rivers, at whose mouths they are placed, are navigable only to an inconsiderable distance. Besides the rivers which abound in Ceylon, it has many lakes, with intersecting canals. The internal communications by land are of the rudest kind; and even the regular roads along the coasts, though considerably improved by the English, are often steep and rugged, and, in many places, infested with wild hogs, buffalos, and elephants.

The soil is in general sandy, with a very small mixture of clay: but tracts of marshy, rich, and productive ground, chiefly allotted to cinnamon plantations, occur in the south-west parts of the island. With proper management, a sufficient quantity of rice might be raised for the annual consumption.

Mr. Percival observes that, as the British dominions in Ceylon skirt the coasts quite round in a circle, his description of them must follow the same direction; and he therefore sets out from the place at which he first landed, and leads his readers completely round the island in the same course in which he travelled it; endeavouring to communicate to them those impressions and observations which occurred to him at the several places which he visited.

Trincomalee, at which Mr. P. first touched, is described as situated in a mountainous, woody, and rather barren country. Its circumference within the walls measures three miles. The fort is strong, and the harbour at once deep, capacious, and secure.

'This harbour, from its nature and situation, is that which stamps Ceylon one of our most valuable acquisitions in the East Indies. As soon as the violent Monsoons commence, every vessel which is caught by them in any other part of the bay of Bengal is obliged immediately to put to sea, to prevent inevitable destruction. At these seasons, Trincomalee and Bombay alone, of all the ports on the different coasts of the peninsula of India, are capable of affording a safe retreat. The incalculable advantages to be derived from such a harbour, are increased by its proximity and easy access to our settlements in the bay of Bengal. A vessel from Madras may arrive here in two days, and can at any time make the harbour. These circumstances point out Trincomalee as an object of particular attention to our government, and of far more consequence to retain, than the whole of the rest of the island.'

A bold shore and large tracts of wood, extending into the interior, meet the eye of the traveller as he advances in a north-west direction to *Malativee*. The latter is more remarkable for its romantic situation than for its importance as a military post. The neighbourhood abounds in cattle, poultry, and game. 'The manner of procuring these animals is at-

tended with as little expence or difficulty to an European as can well be imagined; for the native peasants are so much at his beck, that he has only to supply them with a little powder and shot, and send them into the woods, and they will be sure to bring him back as much game as he can use, without expecting any return for their services.'

The northern extremity of the island, stretching into an oblong peninsula (called *Jaffnapatam*), and blessed with a profusion of vegetables, fruit, game, poultry, and a very salubrious temperature of climate, yields some cinnamon and pepper, but inferior in quality to those which are cultivated in the south-west districts. *Jaffna*, the chief town of the peninsula, is defended by a small but neat and well-constructed fort, and is peopled by an assemblage of various races, mostly of Moorish extraction. Among the handicraftsmen, those termed the *Portuguese* surpass the rest in the beauty and dexterity of their workmanship. In this populous town and district, are also manufactures of coarse cloths, calicoes, shawls, stockings, &c.

Dependent on Jaffnapatam, are the small islands of *Delft*, *Harlem*, *Leyden*, and *Amsterdam*; which furnish the best pasturage for horses and cattle.

The thickets and heavy sands, which render the road to the south-west of the peninsula very tedious and disagreeable, induce the traveller (when the weather permits) to avail himself of the passage through the narrow strait of *Manaar*, so called from the island of that name which it separates from Ceylon.

'The passage from this island to Ramiseram on the Coromandel coast is not above twelve or fourteen leagues; but the advantages which might be derived from this speedy communication are in a great measure prevented by the numberless shallows and sandbanks which every where interrupt the passage, and are so high as to be many of them completely dry except during the monsoons. There is in particular a line of sandbanks which runs quite across from Manaar to Ramiseram, known by the name of *Adam's bridge*. The name and situation of these banks are connected with a variety of curious traditions among the natives. It is universally believed among them that Ceylon was either the Paradise in which the ancestor of the human race resided, or the spot on which he first touched on being expelled from a Celestial Paradise. Adam's bridge is with them, the way by which he passed over to the continent; and some imagine that the Gulph of Manaar, like the Red Sea in scriptural history, closed after him to prevent his return. The opinion, however, is almost universally received, that Ceylon at a distant period formed a part of the continent, and was afterwards separated from it by some great convulsion of nature. This account, though merely an unsupported tradition, is not altogether improbable; for when we consider the narrowness of the intervening space, and the numberless shallows with which it abounds, it cannot be denied that some violent earthquake, or

or still more likely some extraordinary eruption of the ocean, might have placed Ceylon at its present distance from the continent.'

In his progress along the coast from Manaar, Mr. P. observes that the country is barren and sandy, and that the woods are infested with wild beasts. The village of *Arippo* is the only spot in this dreary tract, on which good water can be procured.

Six miles farther lies the bay of *Condatchy*, the rendezvous of the pearl-fishers. The account of their singular occupations is minute and curious: but we can select only the following particulars:

'During the season, all the boats regularly sail and return together. A signal gun is fired at Arippo, about ten o'clock at night, when the whole fleet sets sail with the land breeze. They reach the banks before day-break; and at sun-rise commence fishing. In this they continue busily occupied till the sea-breeze, which arises about noon, warns them to return to the bay. As soon as they appear within sight, another gun is fired, and the colours hoisted, to inform the anxious owners of their return. When the boats come to land, their cargoes are immediately taken out, as it is necessary to have them completely unloaded before night. Whatever may have been the success of their boats, the owners seldom wear the looks of disappointment; for, although they may have been unsuccessful one day, they look with the most complete assurance of better fortune to the next; as the Brahmins and conjurers, whom they implicitly trust in defiance of all experience, understand too well the liberality of a man in hopes of good fortune, not to promise them all they can desire.

'Each of the boats carries twenty men, with a *Tindal* or chief boatman, who acts as pilot. Ten of the men row and assist the divers in re-ascending. The other ten are divers; they go down into the sea by five at a time; when the first five come up, the other five go down; and by this method of alternately diving, they give each other time to recruit themselves for a fresh plunge.

'In order to accelerate the descent of the divers, large stones are employed: five of these are brought in each boat for the purpose; they are of a reddish granite, common in this country, and of a pyramidal shape, round at top and bottom, with a hole perforated through the smaller end, sufficient to admit a rope. Some of the divers use a stone shaped like a half-moon, which they fasten round the belly when they mean to descend, and thus keep their feet free.

'These people are accustomed to dive from their very infancy, and fearlessly descend to the bottom in from four to ten fathoms water, in search of the oysters. The diver, when he is about to plunge, seizes the rope, to which one of the stones we have described is attached, with the toes of his right foot, while he takes hold of a bag of network with those of his left; it being customary among all the Indians to use their toes in working or holding, as well as their fingers, and such is the power of habit that they can pick up even the smallest thing from the ground with their toes as nimbly as an European could

with his fingers. The diver thus prepared, seizes another rope with his right hand, and holding his nostrils shut with the left, plunges into the water, and by the assistance of the stone speedily reaches the bottom. He then hangs the net round his neck, and with much dexterity, and all possible dispatch, collects as many oysters as he can while he is able to remain under water, which is usually about two minutes. He then resumes his former position, makes a signal to those above by pulling the rope in his right hand, and is immediately by this means drawn up and brought into the boat, leaving the stone to be pulled up afterwards by the rope attached to it.

'The exertion undergone during this process is so violent, that upon being brought into the boat, the divers discharge water from their mouth, ears, and nostrils, and frequently even blood. But this does not hinder them from going down again in their turn. They will often make from forty to fifty plunges in one day; and at each plunge bring up about a hundred oysters. Some rub their bodies over with oil, and stuff their ears and noses, to prevent the water from entering; while others use no precautions whatever. Although the usual time of remaining under water does not much exceed two minutes, yet there are instances known of divers who could remain four and even five minutes, which was the case with a Caffree boy the last year I visited the fishery. The longest instance ever known was that of a diver who came from Anjango in 1797, and who absolutely remained under water full six minutes.

'This business of a diver, which appears so extraordinary and full of danger to an European, becomes quite familiar to an Indian, owing to the natural suppleness of his limbs, and his habits from his infancy. His chief terror and risque arise from falling in with the groundshark while at the bottom. This animal is a common and terrible inhabitant of all the seas in these latitudes, and is a source of perpetual uneasiness to the adventurous Indian. Some of the divers, however, are so skilful as to avoid the shark even when they remain under water for a considerable time. But the terrors of this foe are so continually before their eyes, and the uncertainty of escaping him so great, that these superstitious people seek for safety in supernatural means. Before they begin diving, the priest, or conjurer, is always consulted, and whatever he says to them is received with the most implicit confidence. The preparation which he enjoins them consists of certain ceremonies according to the cast and sect to which they belong, and on the exact performance of these they lay the greatest stress. Their belief in the efficacy of these superstitious rites can never be removed, however different the event may be from the predictions of their deluders: Government therefore wisely gives way to their prejudices, and always keeps in pay some conjurers, to attend the divers and remove their fears. For though these people are so skilful and so much masters of their art, yet they will not on any account descend till the conjurer has performed his ceremonies. His advices are religiously observed, and generally have a tendency to preserve the health of the devotee. The diver is usually enjoined to abstain from eating before he goes to plunge, and to bathe himself in fresh water immediately after his return from the labours of the day.

'The

'The conjurers are known in the Malabar language by the name of *Pillal Karras*, or *binders of sharks*. During the time of the fishery, they stand on the shore from the morning till the boats return in the afternoon, all the while muttering and mumbling prayers, distorting their bodies into various strange attitudes, and performing ceremonies to which no one, not even themselves I believe, can attach any meaning. All this while it is necessary for them to abstain from food or drink, otherwise their prayers would be of no avail. These acts of abstinence, however, they sometimes dispense with; and regale themselves with *toddy*, a species of liquor distilled from the palm-tree, till they are no longer able to stand at their devotions.'—

'Before we leave the bay of Condatchy, it may be amusing to take a view of the various objects which most attract the attention of a stranger during the pearl-fishery. The remarkable display of Indian manners, which are here seen in all their varieties, is, perhaps, the most striking of these. Every cast has its representatives; the arts practised by some, the ceremonies performed by others, and the appearance of all, present the richest repast to the curiosity of an European. In one place he may see jugglers and vagabonds of every description practising their tricks with a degree of suppleness and skill, which appear supernatural to the inhabitant of a cold climate; in another he may observe Fakeers, Brahmins, Priests, Pandarams, and devotees of every sect, either in order to extort charity, or in consequence of some vow, going through the most painful operations with a degree of obstinate resolution, which I could scarcely have believed or even conceived, had I not been an eye-witness. I hope it will not be thought an improper digression from my narrative, if I mention a few of those circumstances which most attracted my notice: they are not particularly connected with a description of Ceylon, but they will certainly afford one source of amusement to the traveller who visits it.

'The most painful acts of penance which the Indians undergo, are in order to regain their cast, when they have lost it either by eating things forbidden by the rules of their sect, or by having such connection with people of a different description as is supposed to defile them. In this state they are held in abhorrence by persons of their own sect, debarred from all intercourse with them, and prohibited even to touch them. From such a dreadful state of defilement they can be purified only by paying a large sum of money, or by undergoing the most incredible penances. Among those which I observed, I shall mention a few of the most remarkable. One of them will vow to hold his arm elevated over his head for a certain number of years, without once letting it down; and this he will actually continue to do, till the arm can never afterwards be recovered to its natural position. Another will keep his hand shut till the nails on his fingers absolutely grow into the flesh, and appear quite through at the back of his hand. Many never suffer their hair to be combed, or their beards to be shaved: in this state the hair of their heads, which is of a brown or burnt colour, gets matted, and appears not unlike the mops we use in Europe; or hangs down in long dishevelled strings, similar to that which grows on a species of French lap-

dogs. Some will vow never to lie down; while, at the same time they wear round their necks a large iron instrument not unlike a grid-iron without a handle.

'But one of the most extraordinary of these ceremonies which I have witnessed is, swinging for their cast, as it is termed. A very high and strong post, or cocoa tree, is planted firmly in the ground, crossways; on its top, another beam is placed in such a manner as to turn round on a pivot, and made fast to the upright post by ropes reeved through both, like the yards to the mast of a ship; and from the end of the transverse beam, ropes and pullies are suspended to hoist up the devotee. He then is brought out, attended by a number of people dancing before him; and is led thrice round the swinging post by the Brahmins and his relations, with loud shouts, accompanied by music. In the mean time a sheep is sacrificed, and the blood sprinkled about on the surrounding multitude, who are eager that it shall fall upon them. Barren women, in particular, are anxious to catch the drops in hopes of being by this means rendered fruitful; and, with a view to secure the efficacy of this charm, they contrive to work themselves up, during the ceremony, to the highest pitch of religious delirium, tearing their hair and shrieking in the most dreadful manner. After the sacrifice is performed, the devotee is placed on his belly flat on the ground; and two very large hooks, which have been previously fixed to the ropes suspended from the end of the crossbeam, are inserted deep into the flesh of his back just under the shoulders: other ropes are also placed under his breast and across his thighs, to help to sustain the weight of his body. He is then, by means of the ropes and pullies, hoisted up to the cross tree immediately under which he continues suspended; and in this position he is drawn round the post two or three times. During this painful ceremony he repeats a certain number of prayers, and continues to throw among the crowd flowers which he had taken up with him for the purpose: these are considered as sacred relicks, which will keep away all disease, and ensure happiness ever after; and the surrounding multitude scramble for them as eagerly as an English mob for money thrown among them.

'This ceremony is by no means unfrequent, and I have had occasion to be present at more than one, during my stay in Ceylon. The last I saw performed was at Columbo in 1799, when the cross beam broke, and the man falling to the ground was killed on the spot. A moor of the Moply cast had previously observed to the crowd, who were principally Malabars of the same sect with the devotee, that the timber was not strong enough to bear the man, and would certainly break. This proving actually to be the case, the Malabars affirmed that the Moor had by his prediction bewitched it; and in revenge they attacked him with such fury, that he would certainly have been killed, had not I with a few other European officers and Sepoys, whom curiosity had brought to the spot, interfered and rescued him out of their hands.

'The priests who attend at Condatchy on account of these and other ceremonies, as well as many other sects of religious mendicants, are a great nuisance there; for, besides being exceedingly lazy and idle,

idle, they are likewise very impudent and troublesome. But they are not the only pests which annoy the multitudes collected at the pearl-fishery. There are besides a crowd of jugglers, snake-catchers, dancing boys, and girls of all descriptions, as well as many who follow no other occupation but to procure their livelihood by the arts of filching and thieving, at which they are exceedingly dexterous. This practice, however, is the more pardonable in them, as it appears to be an inherent propensity in an Indian. In their dealings with an European, whenever an opportunity presents itself, they never fail to employ their skill in over-reaching him. It is only however by pilfering and stealing that he suffers from them, for they hardly ever venture to rob or take his goods from him by open force. So great, indeed, is the awe which the atchievements of the Europeans have inspired into the natives of India, that a black man is scarcely ever known to meet a white man hand to hand, either in private conflict or in battle.'

In proceeding southward, the traveller contemplates little else than sand, jungles, and wild beasts, till he arrives at *Nigumbo;* the largest village on the island, and situated in a country of uncommon fertility and verdure. It is a *depôt* for such articles of exportation as the neighbourhood produces, and is likewise a considerable fishing station.—Hence to *Columbo,* the road is pleasantly shaded, and provided with numerous and comfortable resting-places.

Columbo, the capital of the island, and one of the most populous towns in India, is large, regularly built, and strongly fortified. Its open road affords safe anchorage only from December to April.

'For six months of the stormy season, the side of the island is subject to astonishingly heavy falls of rain, accompanied with dreadful thunder and lightning, and violent winds blowing in shore. In the beginning of May 1799, a thunder-storm broke on the fort of Columbo; and several houses, particularly on the south side, were struck and damaged. About half a mile from the fort a number of goats and oxen were at pasture, under the care of a boy; when he and two and thirty of the cattle were struck dead on the spot by one flash of lightning. A woman, in the black town, was also at the same time killed, and a child much hurt. For the space of an hour this storm continued, with the greatest fury I ever remember to have seen. Nor did the electric matter in the air seem at all exhausted by this explosion; as, a few nights after, there was another storm almost equally severe: but, although the hospital and several private houses were struck by the lightning, providentially no lives were lost.

'During the rainy season, the Indians from the Continent are extremely subject to fluxes, dysenteries, and fevers. They are also afflicted by another extraordinary disease, to which they apply as uncommon a cure. This disorder is known by the name of the *Berry-berry:* it is occasioned by the low diet and bad water, which the natives are accustomed to use; and, in part, perhaps, by the dampness

ness of the climate in the wet season. It swells the body and legs of the patient to an enormous size, and generally carries him off in twenty-four hours. The method employed for the cure is, to rub the patient over with cow-dung, oil, chinom, lime-juice, and other preparations from herbs; and then bury him up to the chin in hot sand. When the legs only are attacked, although the disorder be the same, its name differs: a patient is then said to have got *elephant legs*, from the resemblance *their* legs bear at that time to those of these animals. They are also called *Cochin legs*, from the disease being very prevalent among the natives of the place of that name on the Malabar coast, owing to the unwholesome brackish water which is drunk there.'

The boats, or canoes, used in the fisheries at Columbo, particularly attracted the author's notice:

'They are of a curious shape and construction used only in Ceylon, and extremely well calculated for the purpose they are put to. In length they are about fifteen feet, and not more than two in breadth. This shape is calculated to make them go incredibly fast, especially with the addition of a very large square sail, which one would imagine them incapable of carrying without capsizing. To prevent this, an ingenious, and to an European, a very extraordinary contrivance is employed. A log of wood is extended five or six feet from the end of the boat, by way of out rigger. It is larger or smaller according to the size of the boat, and is shaped at each end like the prow of a canoe, to cut through the water. This log is fastened to the boat by two long and bent poles; and seems to serve at once for helm and ballast. Strange as this contrivance may appear, it is indispensably necessary; as from their extreme narrowness, the boats would without it be upset by a person simply stepping into them. They have one mast, to which the square sail is attached in such a manner, that the boat is capable of sailing either way; and can be made instantly to move in an opposite direction without turning or tacking, but merely by swinging the sail of the yard round. A paddle, something in the form of a shovel, is used to guide the boat's head.

'The body of the canoe is a large tree hollowed out by fire, or scooped out by the carpenters. Along the sides of it, boards are nailed to the height of about two feet, in the form of a gunwale, to prevent the water getting in by raising the boat more above its surface. When it is necessary to carry large burdens inland by the canals and rivers, two or three of these canoes are lashed together without the outriggers. Split canes, bamboes, or betel tree, are then laid across them, so as to form a kind of raft; which, though ever so much loaded, will draw but very little water.'

The inhabitants of Columbo form a striking medley of nations, manners, and religious persuasions. The language most generally spoken, and even by the Dutch ladies, notwithstanding that it is reputed vulgar, is the Portuguese of India; which 'may be considered as a barbarous compound of a number of Indian

Indian languages, combined with several European, among which the French is very distinguishable.'

Cinnamon, pepper, arrack, coya-rope, betel-leaf, cocoa-nuts, bees' wax, honey, ivory, &c. are the principal articles of exportation from Columbo. The imports consist chiefly of rice, tea, sugar, cotton cloths of various descriptions, stockings, china wares, tin, copper, toys, &c. As provisions and several articles of luxury are imported from Bengal and Madras, living is proportionably high: but the common idea, that Ceylon is the most unhealthy part of India, is disproved by every day's experience.

From Columbo to *Caltura*, a distance of at least twenty-eight miles, the road is mostly shaded by groves of cinnamon or cocoa-trees, and the adjacent country has the appearance of a boundless garden. Caltura, its fort, and environs, are also represented as forming a delightful landscape. The neighbouring country is the frequent resort of shooting parties, and the theatre on which are displayed much dexterity and prowess in hunting the wild hog and deer.

Six miles from Caltura, lies *Barbareen*, a petty sea-port, with a manufacture of coya cordage. *Point de Galle*, the third town in the island, is situated about 60 miles south from Columbo, in 6° N. lat. It is a populous and trading place, with a strongly fortified and roomy harbour. Fisheries are here carried on to a very considerable extent.

Matura, a small fort and village, occurs 30 miles onward, in a country *exceedingly wild, but well supplied with provisions of all sorts.* 'Every three or four years the elephant is hunted here, by order of government. In 1797, at one of these hunts, a hundred and seventy-six were caught, the greatest number ever remembered to have been taken at one time.'

From the most southerly point of the island to *Batacolo*, we have a dreary tract of sixty miles, infested by wild beasts and the savage Bedahs, who wander in the woods. Batacolo is a place of comparatively small importance: but the surrounding country, and the bold grotesque rocks which skirt its shores, have deservedly attracted particular attention.

Having thus made the tour of the island, Mr. P. next favours us with many highly interesting observations on the characters and manners of the several races of its present inhabitants. At Columbo in particular, he says, the natives of every country in India appear to have their representatives: but, as the manners and customs of these tribes fall more properly under the description of their several native countries, he conceives it to be only necessary, in this work, to describe those which are stationary in Ceylon, and which form a considerable proportion

proportion of its population. Besides the native Ceylonese who live under the dominion of the Europeans, and are distinguished by the name of the Cinglese, the coasts are chiefly inhabited by Dutch, Portuguese, and Malays.

The Dutch of Ceylon are represented as differing much, in their habits and modes of life, from those who have never quitted their native country. Yet, in almost every particular, (except a disinclination to labour, induced, perhaps, by the relaxing influence of the climate,) we recognize the features of the national character. The most prominent traits here enumerated are, a love of gin, tobacco, and heavy meats; a neglect of personal cleanliness; a coldness and apathy of temper; and a repulsive boorishness contracted from a contempt of female society. Their furniture is so heavy and clumsy, that it excites the ridicule of those who are accustomed to more recent modes:

'The present Portuguese of Ceylon are a mixture of the spurious descendants of the several European possessors of that island by native women, joined to a number of Moors and Malabars. A colour more approaching to black than white, with a particular mode of dress, half Indian, and half European, is all that is necessary to procure the appellation of a Portuguese.

'These people are found in all the European settlements in India, particularly those belonging to the Dutch, who often form intermarriages with them. It is in particular very common in Ceylon to see a respectable and wealthy Dutchman married to a Portuguese woman of this description; a connection which our countrymen look upon with the greatest abhorrence, and would not enter into on any account. The Dutchmen alledge that the cause of these intermarriages being so prevalent, is, that scarcely any woman leaves Holland to come to India, except those who are already married.

'The manners of the Portuguese differ from those of the Moors, Malabars, and other Mahometans. They affect rather to adopt those of the Europeans; and wear hats instead of the turbans, and breeches in place of the pieces of cloth, which other Indians wear wrapped round their waists, and drawn together between their legs like loose trowsers. At present it is customary for any black fellow who can procure a hat, and shoes, with a vest and breeches, and who has acquired some little smattering of the catholic religion, to aspire to the title of a Portuguese, a distinction of which he is extremely proud.

'Although the black Portuguese universally profess the Christian religion, and are commonly Roman Catholics, yet they retain many Pagan customs, and their religion may be considered as a compound of both. They affect to derive their religion as well as their descent from the European Portuguese, though the name be almost the only thing they retain of either. The Dutch have allowed priests and other missionaries to go among them; and there are many of them who profess the Protestant religion and go to the churches of the Dutch. In general they are somewhat fairer than the Moors and Malabars;

Malabars; but those who are so to any considerable degree, may be looked upon as the offspring of the Dutch in later times; for the blood of the European Portuguese has been so intermixed as to leave scarce a trace behind. Complexions of all sorts are indeed found among this mongrel race, from a jetty black to a sickly yellow, or tawny hue. Their hair, which is black or dark brown, is worn long, and usually tied, contrary to the custom of the Mahometans. Some of their women are pretty, and much admired for their figures. The men are about the middle size, slender, lank and ill made, so as easily to be distinguished. Their whole expence runs upon dress; they are fond to excess of shew and finery, and never stir out without putting on their best clothes. They are lazy, treacherous, effeminate, and passionate to excess; and retain so much of the character of their boasted progenitors, as to be distinguished for a ridiculous pride. Like the Portuguese of Europe, they have always a long string of sounding names, beginning with Don Juan, Don Fernando, &c.

'They have no regular cast, and are usually esteemed the worst race of people in India. Originally a spurious and outcast brood, they retain only the blemishes which tarnished the characters of their ancestors; and they combine all the vices of the Europeans and Indians, without any of their virtues.

'It was from these black Portuguese, that the troops known by the name of *Topasses* were taken. They were called *Topasses* from wearing hats, instead of turbans; the word *topee*, or *chaupee*, which appears to be a corruption of the French *chapeau*, being the term used in their language for a hat. They were never acounted good soldiers, being neither so hardy nor so brave as the Sepoys; and were seldom employed in the English service. The French, however, very generally had corps of them at Pondicherry, and their other settlements.'

The Malay race, characterized by its ferocity, is widely diffused over the eastern parts of India. In dress, colour, person, and in civil and religious institutions, the Malays differ from the other people of Asia; and even intermarriages with Moors and other casts never wholly obliterate the traces of their physiognomy, and the peculiarities of their manners. They are of a middling stature; remarkably well proportioned; of a light brown or yellow colour; with a broad flat forehead; small, black, and very deeply sunken eyes; and a flattish nose, with a curve at the extremity approaching the lip. Their long and coarse black hair is always smeared with oil of the cocoa-nut. They go naked till twelve years of age, and are soon afterward married. They are fond of barbarous parade, of gaming and cockfighting, and betray, by their hideous countenances, dispositions at once treacherous and sanguinary. Yet these wretches, who intoxicate themselves with *bang* or opium, in order that they may *run-à-muck* * with more desperate fury,

* The natives in these cases run wildly about the streets, crying out *Amok*, *Amok*, or *kill*, *kill*; whence the above corrupt expression of the Europeans.

delight in gardening from their infancy, and pretend to skill in medical botany:

'The government, under which the Malays live in their own country, in some degree resembles the ancient feudal institutions of Europe; and war is consequently the business of the nation. The manners and disposition which naturally proceed from these institutions are found among them. They are all bold, warlike, and prepared for the most desperate enterprizes; they hear the commands of their superiors with the most profound reverence, and yield implicit obedience to their most rigorous orders. But the fierce temper arising from these military institutions, which in Europe has been softened by the Christian religion, has rather been exasperated by the religion which the Malays have embraced. None of that romantic spirit of chivalry, which produced the courtesy of civilized society amidst the ferocity of perpetual bloodshed, is to be found among the Malay followers of a prophet, who was as fierce and warlike as themselves. Accustomed to depend upon their courage, and avenge their own cause, there is more independence of spirit, and more appearance of a lofty intrepidity found among them, than among any other of the servile tribes of the east. Brave, ferocious, and desperate to the last degree on any occasion that requires blood to be shed; cruel and revengeful in their wrath, beyond what human nature can almost be thought capable of, they are looked upon with horror by the effeminate and timid Indians. I have often had occasion to observe these sentiments in the natives of Ceylon, who start affrighted on accidentally meeting a Malay soldier.'

The Ceylonese (who, with the exception of the Bedahs, were the only race of inhabitants, when the island was conquered by the Portuguese) are distinguished as *Cingalese*, who have associated with the Europeans, and *Candians*, who, subject to their own sovereign, occupy the inland mountains.

Notwithstanding the proximity of Ceylon to the Continent of India, from which it seems to have been disjoined by some convulsion of nature, Mr. P. is inclined, from various appearances, to ascribe a Maldine origin to the native islanders. The latter are of a middling stature, neither so strong nor so well made as the Moors or Malabars of the Continent: but their complexion is fairer, and that of the women approaches to yellow or mulatto colour. These people are remarkable for their love of cleanliness, their moderation and delicacy in eating, their strict observance of a distinction of ranks, their punctilious courtesy, habitual gravity, and disregard of chastity. 'They are cautious not even to touch the vessel out of which they drink with their lips: but (what would seem a very awkward method to an European) they hold the vessel at some distance over their heads, and literally pour the drink down their throats.' In their dispositions, they are naturally mild: but, when once provoked, they set no bounds to their revenge,

and

and will sometimes sacrifice their own lives in order to involv those of their adversaries. Among the various diseases to whic they are subject, the most loathsome and formidable are th leprosy and the small pox. The latter they regard with rooted horror, inspired by sentiments of the most barbarou superstition.

Few of the Ceylonese can read or write. The *Gonies*, learned sect, are employed by the king of Candy to execute a writings of a public nature, and in the Arabic character. Slip of the talipot leaf, strung in the form of a file, usually suppl the want of paper.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *The Lyricks of Horace;* comprizing his Odes, Epode, and Secular Ode; in English Verse: with the Latin Text re vised, and subjoined. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 15 s. Boards White. 1803.

THE difficulty of conveying an adequate idea of the beauties of Horace, to English readers, has always been felt and lamented. The good sense and delicate satire of his didactic pieces have sometimes been happily transfused into our language, but the bewitching colours of his lyric poems have eluded every attempt of this nature. Fruitlessly do we seek, amid his various translators, for his fine vein of raillery, so happily mingled in the original with the richest and noblest materials of poetry; for those sprightly transitions, which fill the reader with equal surprize and delight, but which appear abrupt in every version; and for that courtly grace, which throws an unspeakable charm over the compositions of this wonderful poet.

In the attempt now before us, it has been the aim of the writer to give a poetical translation of Horace as nearly literal, and as closely resembling the versification of the original, as the genius of the languages will admit. His design is thus announced in the preface:

'The intention of the present work, is to give such a Translation of the Odes of Horace, as may preclude the necessity of Notes: putting the Latin, and the English reader, as it were, upon the same footing; and leaving them, on the supposition that they are equally instructed, to form their own comments. The difficulty of such an attempt will be readily admitted; as, to this end, the Translation ought not only to be faithful, but poetical; each English Ode breathing the same spirit as the original Latin.

'In the Odes of Horace, nineteen different kinds of metre occur. The translator has, in the course of this version, given one Ode of each kind, in blank verse, of the same measure with the Latin, as

nly as the English language would allow. The first attempt so ttranslate any Ode of Horace was made by our great poet Milton.'

We have long wished to see a translation of Horace, in easures different from those which have been generally employe; and we are therefore glad to meet with the present work, tough its execution is not equal to our expectations. The an obviously requires an uncommon command of language, ad facility of versifying; and in these requisites, we think, the esent translator is materially deficient. His inversions are frequently harsh, and scarcely English, and the mechanical ucture of the lines is often faulty.

As a first specimen, we give the version of the celebrated oe to Pyrrha;

'PYRRHA, say what fine-form'd boy
Urges thee to am'rous joy,
All on roses sweetly laid,
In some grotto's pleasant shade,
Who with perfumes that so shed
Liquid fragrance is o'erspread?
Say for whom, thus plain and neat,
Thou thy sunny hair dost plait?

'Ah, how often shall he wail
Gods that change, and faith that's frail;
Wail, when he, unpractis'd, finds
The seas roughen with dark winds!
Lapt in golden pleasures, who,
Credulous, enjoys thee now;
Hopes thou'lt ever, ever prove
Beauteous, vacant to his love;
While he little seems to know
What deceitful gale may blow?

'Wretched they, whom charms so bright
Unexperienc'd shall delight!
As for me, this wall declares,
Which my votive tablet bears,
That my drench'd weeds hang on high
To the sea's great Deity.'

In the first line, *slender* would have come nearer to Horace than *fine-formed*, an aukward compound; and the 5th and 6th lines are ill-connected by the relative. The *Heu! quoties fidem*, is very lamely turned; and the want of the article to *Gods* and *faith* gives great stiffness to the line. In line 20th, the adjective *unexperienc'd* is totally disjoined from its substantive;—and '*as for me*,' is a botch.—In this short ode, we meet also with the following bad rhimes; *neat* and *plait*; *who* and *how*; *prove* and *love*;—and the twelfth line,

'The sea roughen with dark winds,'

is not verse.

It

It may be said, however, that an adequate translation of the exquisite ode just quoted, is unattainable; and we shall therefore turn to a less difficult subject, the ode to Thaliarchus:

'Behold where stands Soracte's height,
With rising heaps of snow grown white!
Behold the lab'ring woods;
Whose lofty branches can of late
Hardly sustain their icy weight!
And sharp frost binds the floods.

'Then largely bring thy faggots forth,
High pile them on the blazing hearth,
The winter's cold to thaw;
And from thy Sabine two-ear'd jars
The wine four summers which declares,
Kind Thaliarchus, draw!

'Be other cares to heav'n consign'd,
Heav'n that can still the warring wind
Scourging the foamy sea!
Then not the aged wild ash moves
Its boughs, nor do the cypress groves
A trembling leaf display.

'What hap shall from to-morrow spring
Ask not: the days which fate may bring
As so much profit prize:
Thy minutes scorn not, happy boy,
In dance and sweet love to employ,
While stern hoar-age youth flies.

'Now to the Martial Field oft bend
Thy steps, now public walks attend;
Or, at th' approach of night,
Freely indulge the whisper soft
When love appoints the hour, and oft
Repeat such dear delight.

'Now let the nymph's sweet laugh reveal
What secret corner may conceal
The frolic fugitive;
Some love-pledge from her arm convey,
Or from her finger snatch away,
Struggling for what 'twill give.'

This version possesses similar faults with the former. Line 11 is obscure, and the 12th is ridiculous. What is Thaliarchus to draw? A waggon, or an inference, or a winter-piece?—The rhymes are equally blameable: we have here *forth* and *hearth*, *sea* and *display*, *moves* and *groves*. The concluding line is harsh and unpoetical, and scarcely to be understood, even on referring to the original. In the next ode, we meet with a miserable stanza:

'Apollo, threat'ning thee a boy,
Unless the oxen were restor'd
Thy cunning stole, did laugh enjoy,
Stript of his quiver's hoard.'

Et sic in infinitum: we find no improvement as we proceed in the volumes: but, in glancing over the subsequent pages, we observe the same succession of incorrect rhymes and harsh expressions. In the twelfth ode, the line

"*Crescit, occulto velut arbor ævo,*"

is translated,

'As unperceiv'd the tree will foliage bear;
So spreads abroad Marcellus' fame'—

which turns Horace's fine idea to nonsense; for how can a tree be in leaf invisibly? The next line spoils every sort of resemblance in the simile:—the fame of Marcellus *spreads abroad*, as the foliage of the tree grows *unperceived*. Horace does not refer to the production of foliage. He beautifully compares the slow progress of reputation, derived from private virtues, to the gentle growth of the 'monarch of the wood.'—In this very stanza, *fame* is made to rhyme to *beam*: an Irish rhyme, surely!

We shall now give a specimen of one of the author's Horatian measures:

'ODE XIV. To A VESSEL, PERHAPS IMPLYING THE COMMONWEALTH.

'O Ship, shall fresh waves bear thee back to sea!
O, what art thou about? Firmly remain
In port. Dost thou not see
Thy side stript of each oar,

'And thy mast shiver'd by the furious South?
Thy sail-yards shriek too, and without its cords
Thy keel can scarce endure
Surge most impetuous:

'Nor is thy canvas whole; nor hast thou Gods,
Whom, prest by need, thou may'st again invoke.
Although the Pontic pine,
Proud daughter of the wood,

'Thou boastest, and thy race, and fruitless fame;
To painted sterns no timid sailor trusts.
Do thou, lest doom'd to be
The sport of winds, take heed.

'Thou, who wert late my wearisome disquiet,
Now my regard, and not my meanest care,
Avoid the seas which gird
The brilliant Cyclades.'

We

We must here repeat the translator's own words: "O, what art thou about?"

In the ode to Glycera, the *grata protervitas* is rendered '*her petulance;*' and Mæcenas, in the xxth, is called, 'thou first of all knights;' and, in the xxivth, *justitiæ soror, fides*, is turned into '*sister justice.*'—But we are tired of multiplying notices of this kind.—In one word, nothing can be more unlike Horace than this version, excepting Sternhold and Hopkins. Yet we have said that we are glad to see this translation; the author of which has brought into action a happy idea, though he has not been able to execute it with skill. The best method of translating Horace, as we long ago suggested, is to make the versions of his Odes, *Songs*, as the originals undoubtedly were. We have a sufficient variety of airs, to express the different subjects of them; and it would be easier for a person accustomed to versification to adapt words to popular airs, than to imitate the Latin rhythm; which will always sound uncouthly, when used in our language, even to learned ears.

We conceive, also, and on this ground we must rest the vindication of the present writer, that a sufferable translation of Horace, on the plan which we propose, is above the strength of any individual. The variety of subjects treated by the Latin Poet, the knowlege of life, and the tone of the *best company* preserved throughout almost all his works, demand an assemblage of qualifications, with the possession of which no single writer can now flatter himself. Let us be grateful, then, to the author before us, for having broken the former trammels of versification: but let us acknowlege, at the same time, that Horace remains still untranslated.

Art. III. *The Tourifications of Malachi Meldrum*, Esq. of Meldrum-Hall. By Dr. Robert Couper. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

There are critics by intuition, who glance at a title-page, and pronounce sentence with the same ease and *precision* which are displayed by the meteorologists of Belfast and Aberdeen in predicting the state of the weather for every day in the year. This summary process could never satisfy our conscience, because, unfortunately, we are not gifted with the *second sight*. Had we not gone beyond the fantastical title of this pair of pocket volumes, we might have said merely that they squirted a little farcical satire on modern travellers: but a perusal of their contents has enabled us to declare that we have found nothing low nor malignant, that the author never laughs nor frowns without a cause, that his playful and attic humour

sometimes reminds us of Addison, and that a happy union of talent and liberal sentiment pervades the whole. If we have occasionally remarked abrupt transitions, they are seldom unnatural; and the plan of alternate portions of prose and verse is managed with considerable delicacy and ease. Starch criticism may, perhaps, proscribe the *seria mixta jocis*, as trenching on the essential law of unity of design: but real life constantly exhibits a compound scene; and the *weeping comedy*, if ably conducted, never fails to command the smiles and the tears of the unprejudiced audience.

The preliminary address to the Highland Society of Scotland is penned in the language of the Caledonian muse, and, among some truly poetical stanzas, contains this beautiful allusion:

'Sae the rare bird that soars sae high,
Years check him on the western sky,
And chill his heart, nae mair to try
His daring flight;
He cowrs his wing, and steeks * his eye,
In deadly night.

'Life's ember suffers unco' † throes,
What will *ye*, wierdy ‡ time, disclose?
Wi' pale blue light it bursts and glows;
A flitting gleam;
A wizzard form right rapid grows
On the faint beam.

'Frae the red aisles || sudden springs
The bird renew'd; young life he brings;
And, poising on his garish wings
Baith braid and lang,
Strong up to heav'n he cheery singe
His gratefu' sang.'

It may, indeed, be alleged that His Majesty, Mr. Addington, and other distinguished personages, have their share of eulogy: but we should remember that the language of gratitude is naturally overflowing, and that Pope could hardly compose even an epitaph without wandering from his subject. If we were inclined to hypercriticism, we might object to the phrase 'a weel claw'd paw whists the harangue,' as devoid of distinct meaning: though this remark may, perhaps, proceed from our want of intimate acquaintance with the Scottish dialect. We understand, by the help of the glossary, that a *weel claw'd paw* is equivalent to a *well scratched hand*, (alluding, very probably, to the *Scotch fiddle*,) but the idea of a *well scratched hand whisting an harangue* is not level to our comprehension.—Again, in the 8th stanza, Mr. Addington's '*troubled* sail is kept *full* with

* Closes. † Dreadful. ‡ Eventful. || Ashes.

honour;'

honour;'—and our premier is advised to be cautious, as 'an honest footstep may fail on such *ground*.'

Mr. Meldrum, the supposed squire and hero of these *tourifications*, having duly pondered on his age and the circumstances of his family, very prudently resolved to limit his range of observation to his own country; and he sallied forth, with his man, Sadrach, in quest of as much knowledge as would fill a book. The recital of a few alarming mishaps, which befel both on the morning of their outset, is followed by some very pretty verses to a *winter morning*. The journey, it is true, took place in summer: but contrast suggested the lay.

Having arrived at the nearest market-town, Mr. M. alighted at the Saracen's-Head Inn, with all the airs of a consequential traveller; and, though he had been in this same town almost every week of his life, and had been 'again and again in almost every hole and bore of it; yet, in a scientific point of view, he found that he knew nothing at all about it.' This, then, was a busy day of observation and incident, and, as we afterward learn, formed the whole duration of the journey.—Referring to the work itself for the regular *chain of events*, and for all the subordinate details, we shall indulge our readers with a few notices and extracts.

Various subjects having excited various reflections, the narrative thus proceeds:

'After this humiliating view of the capacities and incapacities of mankind, I cared not to be philosophizing it any longer; so I pulled off my hat and wig, and took out my handkerchief—the verses about winter came out along with it—so to get quit of every thing that had *bore* so hard upon me, I set a thrumming them over, and with my pencil gave them the last touch they shall ever get from me. The contrast they continued to make with the present scene, which in other views had delighted and disconcerted me so much, brought my mind nearer a balance. So duly replacing my hat and wig, but keeping sight of my white handkerchief, for oratorial purposes, I read to the echoing streams—mighty pastoral in a summer's day—as follows.'

Though, for the present, we must e'en abandon the *winter-noon* and *winter-evening* to the echoing streams, we shall be excused for retaining a brace of stanzas, on account of their simplicity and pathos:

'Awa, awa, *thou* winter drear!
Fast speed *ye* to the west;
And send the gentle, genial spring,
In gowd and purple drest.

'Awa, awa, thou winter grim!
Let me the morning see,

Then on the gowan's * bonny tap,
My lassie trips wi' me.'

The statesman may borrow some useful hints from the dialogue between our traveller and the antique weaver; and every lover of innocent frolic will welcome the rencontre with that charming imp, Miss Watson. The appearance of the parson suspends the moments of waggish dalliance, and turns the conversation to poetry and Ossian:

'An illiterate and half naked barbarian, and a Scots Highlander into the bargain. Like the slave habituated to his fetters, we were not willing to part even with our disgrace; and as we could not resist the strength, fertility, and tenderness of the Celtic bard, we had nothing for it, but to put him into the strong hands of the inquisition, armed with Homer and Virgil, with a thousand commentators, and ten thousand prejudices. Still the harp of the old barbarian sounded upon his cloud, and with increasing strength. This was not to be forgiven; so it was judged best to lay the ghost, by proving, declaring, and saying in the most incontestible manner, that neither the ghost nor the bard ever had an existence, except in the visionary heads of some scabbed highlanders. What a triumph to the learned and the little-minded! An hundred years hence, people may talk about the thing, but they will care little whether James Macpherson, Esq. or Ossian, the son of Fingal, was the bard; and may-be they will care as little, except as far as it favours literary disputation, whether Johnson wrote the Rambler, or Pope, his Essay on Man. But speaking of the Celtic bard, I feel a little of the difficult pressing upon me. I feel it not for myself, because my mind is as much at ease upon the subject, and with as much authority, as I feel myself entitled to number my fingers. These literary antagonists were within half an inch of one another, but they did not meet—perhaps they did not intend it. Had Macpherson, a man of bold genius, and talents not inadequate, told his tale correctly on the first publication of these poems, and I am not sure he did not so, when he attempted his specimen, the world would have repaid him as it did, with honour and emolument; his vanity however kept pace with his affluence, or rather made some long strides before it; and the story of originality now loudly mingling itself in the question, he found, as he thought, more honour redeemable; so he lay by, and ever after did what he could, with much art and ingenuity, to keep the affair in all possible doubt and obscurity. The truth of the whole business, however, which from some sort of choice, perhaps not of the most benignant kind, has implicated so much abilities, and so much character, may be thrust into a nut-shell. As I said, the antagonists could have easily met, and with honour; but these are not the regulations of controversy. Every country, especially the Highlands of Scotland, at least the thing has continued longest among them, has numerous tales to amuse their idleness, as well as to keep alive their native spirit and enthusiasm; and we have much reason to believe, that the rhapsodies of Homer were long preserved

* Daisy.

in

in a similar manner. Macpherson, like all the highlanders, was impressed with the highest veneration for these tales; but the antiquity afterwards affected, and shamelessly, in the face of all history and probability, attempted to be established, had not at that day entered into the heads of one of them. They allowed them, however, a comparative antiquity, but by no means the high antiquity Macpherson afterwards bestowed on them. Aided by his friends, and by the public, I believe, he collected a vast number of these scattered and detached pieces and poems, and, aided again by a man of ability, superior, it was believed, to his own, he arranged into an epic, what was possible, and it is to their honour that no feebleness appears to denounce the patch-work. Those poems that had little connection with Fingal or Temora, or where Fingal or Temora could be carried on without them, were published in their insulated state; but I would not aver that the soldering hand had not been upon them too. 'Did not Homer, or somebody, do all this for the Iliad? and were not Tucca and Varius doing some kind of duty, on that same kind of thing, the Eneid, though circumstances then were wldely different indeed?'

It has often been asked, with an air of witty exultation,—Of what consequence is it to the world, whether the poems ascribed to Ossian be the production of some hoary bard "of the days of other times," or of a learned squire, who ate roast-beef and plumb-pudding in the 18th century? Doubtless, to the mere asserter of national claims, the inquiry is not very important: but in the history of literature and of human society, it is desirable to trace the progress of characteristic poetry, and to mark its most memorable epochs. With regard to a much-contested question, the sentiments quoted above are, perhaps, not very remote from the truth. Unless we altogether renounce the evidence of testimony, we must admit that certain heroic deeds and traditionary songs were recited in the highlands of Scotland previously to the appearance of the poems *confected* (if we may be allowed the term) by Mr. Macpherson; and it seems to be not less evident that this gentleman tacked together such scattered fragments as chance or industry threw in his way, and moulded his motley and meagre materials into a regular and seemly mass. Had he acted the part of a faithful editor, he would have contributed more to our information than to our pleasure; because, together with some striking beauties, he would have retained much absurdity: but still he would have exhibited a transcript of the genuine gaelic poetry, which forms the ground-work of his publication. To fix the date of these wild mountain-lays would require all the patient research which could be bestowed by a scholar, conversant in the language and history of the highlands, and superior to the prejudices of country and party.

We cannot so readily join the criticizing parson in his abuse of Virgil; because, though an imitator, he usually surpasses his original, and has bequeathed to us one of the most finished poems that the world ever saw.

Though *Glenfiddich* is rather a harsh title for a tender poem, and our ears are not much charmed by such a line as,

'Child of that fair, whose form stolen from the sky,'

it is our duty to observe that the versification in these volumes is seldom either prosaic or grating. With smoothness of cadence, Mr. M. (or one of his party) usually contrives to combine the still more envied qualities of simplicity and feeling. The following apostrophe to evening is not an unfavourable exemplification of this remark:

'Sweet Eve! then blythsome, cheery, lead along
Thy children's airy dance, and social song;
Trim the loose lock, which labour could not see;
And trim the garment spread to toil and thee;
From their young brows, care's traces rub away;
Sweet be the rising and the setting day.
On their smooth cheek, and from their beaming eye,
Bid toil's young pastime shine, and troubles fly;
And when dead night, in darkest mantle drest,
Marks out, long welcome, their sweet place of rest,
Shed thou thy influence o'er their heavy eyes,
Till morning's beam, and morning's joys arise.
Nought fills your veins with idle fancied woes;
Children of nature, sweet be your repose!'

Again,

'Sweet Eve! thy breath, rich from the forest, flies,
Loaded with dew, and odours as they rise.
It passes gently o'er the lakes and trees,
And scarcely forms the wanton, wand'ring breeze;
Lightly it skims the many-coloured scene,
And kisses soft the daisy on the green;
Wilt thou, too, gentle breeze! thus die away,
And leave the nameless remnant of the day?'

The continuation of this address is not, perhaps, equally happy, and two of the lines are deficient in grammatical correctness:

'And *dead*'s [dead *is*] thy children in its dire embrace.'
'Proud *rolls* thou river! through the roaring tide.'

We find such frequent instances of this last mistake, that we suspect the author of *malice prepense*; and that, without the fear of grammar before his eyes, he has sacrificed *concord* to *harmony*.

Meldrum.

Meldrum-Hall, and part of its hard fate, under the innovating auspices of Signior Pittoresco, are thus humorously depicted:

'Meldrum-hall, though I cannot trace the laying of its foundation-stone to the fabulous ages, or even to the more recent ones of the Danes and Saxons, yet was of considerable antiquity; and tradition held it up that my ancestors occupied the mansion, *far farther* back than I am willing to take credit for, though I never was at much pains, I must acknowledge, to throw any doubt or ridicule upon the story. Like all old mansions, it had been built into shape, and out of shape, many times, and oft, no matter by whom; but convenience and strength seem to have weighed more with the architects, than regularity and beauty. By divers exertions, however, by the time I came to the possession of it, it was moulded into no disagreeable shape, either internally or externally; and even at that time I think no private gentleman needed to have been ashamed to hang up his hat and coat in the hall, in token of right or heritage. Such was the house: a neat stone-wall, topped with a railing of iron, encompassed the court before it, and the gate was no mean affair, with its pillars decorated a-top with the lion and the unicorn. The pillars of the small entries on each side of the gate, and those at the angles, were surmounted, according to the punning conceits of former days, with a drum and a mallet, in allusion to our name. Behind all this, but close to it, lay the garden and the orchard; and though usefulness was evidently the first feature in their composition, yet elegance, and a particular kind of taste, seemed by no means to have been left out of the business The whole was nearly surrounded by a forest almost as ancient as the mansion itself, whose tenants, the rooks, travelled forth in the morning, and returned in the evening, seemingly as well convinced of their rights, privileges, and property, as any squire that ever died of the gout at Meldrum-hall.

'The entry, as it was called heretofore, or the approach, as it is called now, though it seldom deserves the name, as from the little trimmed and winding paths, we can scarcely ever be certain whether we are approximating or receding from a house of any note—the entry was a long strait avenue from the south, composed of quadruple rows of oak, birch, and elm, within which, and on each side of a broad well gravelled road, were two broad green margins, of the best sward the country could afford.

'The extremity of this avenue was crossed by a fine little clear trundling rivulet, which nature had not been niggardly in furnishing with ornaments; and which the children, from the foundation of the dynasty, had bestowed their best abilities upon, by building little dams, and mills, and seats, and every little whim their little fancies could strike out.

'Ill-boding to all these things was the existence of the wise-born Signior Pittoresco.

'In the first year of this sapient gentleman's pilgrimages to new-clothe nature, and to set right the taste of a people who had never

got

got Noah's mud out of their teeth, I was a few months married to Dorothy—my dear Dorothy—and he having heard of our quarters, and presuming on the rude state of things about Meldrum-hall, contrived, somehow or other, to take us in his way, and to do us the honour of taking his tea, and bread, and butter, and eggs, and ham, and cold tongue, and a beef-steak, done with onions, and a salt herring, and a dram, with us. During this operation, for breakfast I cannot call it, I was chipping away with bits of crust, or trifling with my teaspoon, trying ever and anon to elaborate some conversation with my guest; but I soon discovered, without much magic, that eating and thinking were not the work of the same hour, with the wonder-working Signior Pittoresco. Every thing, however, as some Solomon said, has an end, and so had Signior Pittoresco's breakfast; but whether his thinking faculties, from the plethora he had induced, could not find room to set themselves rightly and speedily a-going, or whether he had any at all, I could not well determine; but at any rate it would not have been very civil and wise, at the very outset of the business, and labouring under my own fears, as well as the dread of his follies, to commit the Signior roundly to the blue flames everlastingly.

'The repast over, the Signior, deflecting the muscles of his visage from the hilarious and rubicund expression excited by eating, to the dignified, philosophical, and appropriate countenance of an amateur, sublimely moved into the lobby, and assumed his little short cane, and little short spencer; while I was pacing it about with all possible complaisance and activity, in assisting him. Thus appointed, and his spurs hung up by his own hand, because they were a present, he said, from a very pretty young fellow, his best friend, My Lord Clumptree, who by the bye, he added, possessed a most exquisite taste, he wished me a good morning. I ventured to represent to him, with all possible self-denial and humility, that perhaps I might be of some use to him in traversing the grounds; and was proceeding with infinite modesty, when he cut me short, by very coolly thanking me; and adding, with a little exaltation of manner, that a second person must break in upon the luminousness of his perceptions, and thereby mightily affect the vigour and originality of his ideas; and that a proprietor was in this doubly dangerous, as such gentlemen were generally sunk in apathy, or insipid familiarity, with the scenery and its capabilities; or they were miserably warped by limited perceptions and ideas, or by a pitiful and mistaken œconomy.

'Thus instructed by my guest, that I was both a fool and a scrub, I slunk back into the parlour to meditate the most heroic intentions. In a short time, I found every chair had some cursed fault or other; and I began to wonder how I could have endured the dullness of the glass in the windows so long. The arm-chair in the very best and most useful preservation, which my ancestors had honoured, and which had honoured them; the arm-chair which had administered to many a comfort, was decreed to be sent to the garret. By degrees, every thing became unbearable, and in this benign and christian temper sallied I forth.

'The

'The first thing I met to lubricate my attentions, was half a dozen carpenters, whom I had finishing my threshing mill, sawing away at my best foreign planks which others were pointing into little stakes. The gardener's men, and every body that could be mustered, were hying after the Signior with these same stakes; for from the rapidity of his motions no one could have doubted of the ripeness of his conceptions; and the gardener himself was following, though at a respectful distance from the Signior, but with a face fraught with intelligibility, and incipient wisdom and importance. There was no balsam here, and my heroic intentions were stifled in the germ; but I am a peaceable man. Pacing onwards I descried a line formed by these stakes, which appeared as fantastical to me, as the figures of the constellations on a globe, and as far beyond my abilities to comprehend. A poet, they say, sits down with a mighty sublime line of poetry, as he believes, in his head, and like a good christian trusts to God's providence for a second. Under some such impulse as this, our son of perception seemed to have stuck in his first stake; for whatever blemishes might hang upon the emanations of his brain, tardiness or timidity seemed to have no share in the business. Still disposed to graciousness and placability, I thought a trip over the farm, where I had no doubt of finding every thing to my liking, would soothe me a little, and prepare me on my return to get rid of the Signior and his ideas as quietly and as politely as possible. Little didst thou think, honest Malachi Meldrum, that the tempter was within thy gates, was in thy parlour, mercifully not in thy bed-chamber, and preparing almost as much mischief for thee, as the devil did for us all, when he somehow got his nose *thurst* into the garden of Eden.

'Accordingly on my return, I found my gentleman in the parlour, and my wife Dorothy at his elbow, with a sheet of large paper and a black-lead pencil on the table before them. My stately avenue, which had made many of my ancestors stroke their hoary chins with much self-gratulation, I soon learned, he had devoted to the axe, like a bush of furze; my pretty little murmuring rivulet was to be dammed up, and converted into something like a canal, let the Naiads and the Dryads comfort themselves as they best could; and the court, with its lions and unicorns, mallets and drums, was to be demolished instantly. Mercy on us! it was a wonder the house itself escaped the general doom; but Signior was too crafty, and reserved that for another essay. 'Aye, thought I, and all this to humour a fashion which may repent of itself in a couple of days, tho' it cannot *repone* itself in as many hundred years; or to gratify the whim of a capricious and assuming quack traveller, who might forget Meldrum-hall, with all its sweeps and its canals, in the first weaver's shop into which his affected search of knowledge might prompt him to descend. No, no; I was not disposed so hastily to give up my old friends, for so fresh, and so questionable, an acquaintance; so I set about rolling up Pittoresco's ideas in as careless and easy a manner as I could, in order to give as little offence as possible, or indeed none at all, thanking him all the while for the trouble he had taken, and the honour he had done us; and, nodding to my wife,

I added, we would, without loss of time, give them, as surely they deserved, our most serious and unbiassed consideration. I thought the oration irresistible; but, alas! I soon found myself most egregiously mistaken in my auxiliary. My dear, says Mrs. Dorothy Meldrum, and with something in her air and manner rather new to me, My dear, said she, during your absence Signior Pittoresco, whose taste, I think, cannot be sufficiently estimated, has been kindly pointing out to me what to be sure had not escaped my own observation before, and what has still more forcibly struck me, since our visits at Buramputu house, which you know the Colonel made a point of with me. Indeed every body must allow, that he is a very pretty gentleman; indeed all the East India gentlemen are that, not like the West India nabobs, who, be they ever so rich like your uncle, look always as if they had the whip over their shoulders to flog a negroe—the Colonel—I wish his lady—but that is neither here nor there. So as I was saying, when we were at Buramputu house—dear me! what fine lawns and fawns, shrubberies and bushcries, gravel walks, with pretty green selvidges, call you them? and things like vast big bonnets, plumps, or clumps, or something, I believe the Colonel called them—his wife—she is no lady—she called them something too, but that is no matter. What openings, what shuttings—what effectual disturbation of lights and shadows—how beautiful the converted trees, in one part of the canal, and how rude and wild the shadow of the corrupt rocks, on the other. In short, every thing, dear Mr. Meldrum, I am sure you were entrancised, indeed were ye, my dear—every thing how fine—how picturesque and sublunary, and grand—no straight walls and dead lines there—what scenery—what masses of light and darkness—the Lord deliver me! you might have travelled a month in the park, without knowing where the wall was; by the bye, I wonder yet where it was, and the garden was so delightfully set down, at five miles distance—that was truly sublunary—How nice the boys, running every hour with their baskets and creels—and the drudge cart—charming—for ever enlivening the picture from one end of it to the other—why can they not do this upon canvas—with its turnips and cabbages and odokuperous leeks, for the kitchen—truly sublunary indeed.—Meldrum-hall! dear Mr. Meldrum, Signior Pittoresco says, I have ideas the like—we must really compare, and conjungate our ideas about it, for we really both think it very capabilious.

'During this elegant effusion of the simple sublime, my ears were tingling; a cold sweat loaded my brow; and I was very heartily consigning Pittoresco and his ideas to the devil and the wrath to come; when taking a sly scrutinizing peep at dame Dorothy's visage, I found she was practising the same ingenuity on mine. It is very singular how circumstances, which one would think witchcraft itself could scarcely connect, will co-operate, and in an instant, and with vigour too.'

Few of the old Scottish ditties can boast of more poetical merit than *the Cummynge*, which is composed in imitation of them;

them; and the *despairing lover* is fraught with the expression of simple melancholy.

The character of Captain Hamilton's grandfather is a finished portrait: but our limits permit us to copy only the general outline.

'Charity might have taken him by the hand in every resting-place of his story; for his own benevolence was not always seen, or it was thrown in obliquely with the most fascinating humility. His temper, notwithstanding the progress of cold-blooded and suspicious age, was still tender, social, and generous; and though he doated on the manners of the last age, he stooped not, peevishly, to draw a comparison disadvantageous to the present. His civility, as he called it, acknowledged no privileged distinction of age, rank, or sex. His bow was ever ready to his superior, his equal, and his inferior; and to be sillily presuming with a prince or peer, haughtily to spread a blush over a peasant's face, or affront a very beggar, were actions, he said, incompatible with sense and justice, setting the feelings of mankind out of the question. Virtue, he said, was lovely, whether it sparkled from a throne, or glimmered in the wilderness; and if the author of nature, in the great scale of things, permitted vice and infirmity, we ought to pity, not to condemn. This simplicity of sentiment, and dignity of action, never forsook the good old man; for he was careful to preserve the disposition, by brooding over his life, where all his faculties were strong and vigorous, and when his feelings had not been blunted by the hand of time, or injured by a thoughtless, thankless world. A tale of distress, fifty years old, and a thousand times repeated, still brought its portion of tears along with it, when his shrivelled and trembling hand was scarcely able to lift the handkerchief, and to wipe them away. He said, he was the better *of* [*for*] dwelling on ideas like these; and that he was certain of existence only while he felt the link of affection undissolved.'

It is now time, however, to announce Mr. M.'s return to the Mansion-house, in consequence of being threatened with a serious fit of the gout: 'During my hours of respite in this same paroxysm,' adds he, 'I put my memorabilia together, and in such a manner as if they had been penned immediately as they occurred; lamenting and grieving bitterly all the while, that my Tourifications, from which I had promised myself so much renown, as well as entertainment, should have terminated in less than a day, and in not more than a dozen of miles from my fire-side.' He then bewails, in suitable strains, the death of Paulo, a favourite whelp; and, finally, he treats the reader with a song, intitled *Nell o'Garvamore*.

The etiquette of our tribunal forbids a poetical response at parting: but we beg leave to assure the author, in plain prose, that he has not a little contributed to smooth and enliven our serious labours; that we learn with pleasure that the impression

sion of his work has been diffused, without the aid of advertisements or *puffs direct*; and that, though in the routine of our vocation we had noted some instances of hasty or provincial writing, on perusing the story of Jessy Hawthorn, they were effaced by our tears.

ART. IV. *A Tour through Germany*; particularly along the Banks of the Rhine, Mayne, &c. and that Part of the Palatinate, Rhingaw, &c., usually termed the Garden of Germany. To which is added a concise *Vocabulary* of familiar *Phrases*, &c. in German and English, for the Use of Travellers. By the Rev. Dr. Render, Native of Germany. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

IN stating his pretensions to the notice of the British public, Dr. Render informs us that he passed eight years in the countries which he describes, and that he directed his attention chiefly to men and manners. From such an opportunity and such a disposition, much was to be expected from a gentleman of liberal education; and, in the Doctor's own estimation, much has been performed. Occasional awkwardness of composition cannot materially affect the intrinsic value of his observations: yet we would seriously advise all foreigners, who venture to write in English, to submit their manuscripts to the revision of some friendly and competent judge; or even to the process of book-dressing, which is now practised on an easy and extensive scale, for the accommodation of the great and little authors of our own island.

The 'preliminary account of Germany, together with some observations for a traveller through that extensive empire,' appears to us trite and desultory, though 'founded on the most accurate and authentic documents.' Do these, however, confirm the assertion that 'Germany is the *only* country in Europe which cultivates every production necessary to a large and flourishing state?' and may not such language be construed into an insult, by the chief magistrate of the great Republic One and Indivisible?

The Doctor's salutary hints are followed by a *critique raisonnée* on English, French, and German postillions; and that, again, by a notice of infinite importance to travellers. 'In the Appendix to the second volume,' says he, 'I have subjoined, for the benefit of those who travel in Germany, *a Vocabulary of easy words and familiar phrases, with short and expressive dialogues on travelling; together with the German and English alphabets, with a short alphabetical German and English Dictionary*, &c. calculated to facilitate the learning of the language, which will

will enable *them* to converse on the road, even though very young beginners, and which constitutes at once a source of information, entertainment, and improvement.' This modest recommendation of such a precious philological apparatus is not without a parallel. A very learned and zealous professor of Oriental languages, who conceived that the salvation of the world depended on that of the vowel points, thus addressed one of his pupils, who was on the eve of embarking for Germany: "My young friend, I have but three cautious to give you,—Read your bible,—be often on your knees,—and take my grammar along with you."—The present generous tourist, however, has not limited his extra-services to the compilement of 'an alphabetical German and English Dictionary.'

'What delight,' he exclaims, 'must a foreigner feel in passing some hours in a German lodge, where every thing is conducted with decorum and the greatest solemnity! There he will meet the first princes of the German empire, nobility and men of learning; and, to heighten the charms and conviviality of the scene, music, all-powerful music! is called in to accompany the choicest songs. I shall here take the liberty of presenting my reader with a specimen of a German masonic song, which is adopted in all the lodges in the empire. I am the more induced to publish it in this work, as I have often sung it in several lodges in this kingdom, and been requested to publish it, with the music, and an English translation.

"Come, brothers, sing with me,
Join, brethren all;
Wisdom our Goddess be,
List to her call."—*Et sic deinceps.*

We could quote more from another part of the work in praise of free-masonry, did we not fear that Professor Robison, or the Abbé Barruel, might cite the convivial Doctor before their bloody tribunal.

The travels commence abruptly with a description of Frankfort on the Mayne;—a flourishing city, and, if we may implicitly rely on the author's assertions, 'one of the wealthiest in all Europe.' In the second volume, however, (p. 212.) he considers Hamburgh to be 'without comparison the most flourishing and richest city in Germany.'

Whoever has heard of Frankfort has heard of its inns, fairs, &c.: but the following particulars may, perhaps, be gratifying to some of our readers:

'A man who commits a bankruptcy in Germany is very severely dealt with: no people in the world hold this in more abhorrence than the Germans, as every one of the family *suffer* for it. No person thus insolvent can ever expect to get a public employment in the state, and should he even hold one at the time, it would be immediately taken from him. He is looked upon as an outcast in all societies,

cieties, and every company avoids his approach. How far in that respect my countrymen go beyond the mark, I leave to the judgment of others. I think some allowance ought to be made in cases of this kind, when it is recollected how many men in England, who have unfortunately become bankrupts, have afterwards not only paid twenty shillings in the pound to all their creditors, but have also accumulated large fortunes for themselves and families: I am rather inclined to infer that there is something rotten in the state of the *lex Germanorum* on this particular head.'

The indiscriminate application of either lenity or rigour, in the treatment of bankrupts, is alike hurtful to the interests of individuals and of society. Fraud or gross negligence ought not to pass unpunished, but the objects of misfortune are intitled to the pity and support of the benevolent:

'The *adeliche stiftungen*, "convents for female nobility" of protestant familie, are very numerous, and their luxurious mode of living exceeds that of the first nobility in Germany. The ladies are permitted to marry, and to associate with the most noble families in the city. Every new emperor at his coronation lodges in one of these noble convents during his residence at Francfort, which is a month. These edifices are the most magnificent that can be imagined, and their apartments are furnished in the most elegant style. Every lady, who is introduced and admitted into such convent, must produce a lineal genealogy of nobility. They enjoy every happiness, and are not in the least confined to any irksome regulations. The greater part of them are well educated; and are extremely affable to their inferiors and strangers. They are generally the daughters of noble and ancient warriors; as dukes, counts, marquisses, generals, &c. who at their death have not been able to leave them a fortune sufficient for the proper support of their rank in life. They have the advantage of being provided with every article both of necessity and luxury; and enjoy, likewise, an annual income, which is frequently very considerable. Many of these ladies dress in a peculiar style of elegance, and wear armorial ornaments about their necks, shewing the distinction and antiquity of their ancestors. Others have crosses and relics from the holy land to which their families have been entitled. The superiors have their orders given them by the emperor of the Romans.'

The abolition of expensive funerals, and the law against burying in churches, are recorded with due approbation. The sensible and humane saying of Sir Matthew Hale, that *churches were for the living, and church-yards for the dead*, was, perhaps, never more fatally illustrated than in the following narrative:

'In the month of July 17**, a very corpulent lady died at *** in ****. Before her death she begged as a particular favour to be buried in the parochial church. She had died on the Wednesday, and on the following Saturday was buried according to her desire. The next day the clergyman preached her funeral sermon; the weather was uncommonly hot, and it ought to be observed, that for several months preceding her death a great drought had prevailed, not a drop

of rain had fallen, and consequently it was an uncommonly sultry season.

'The succeeding Sunday, a week after the lady had been buried, the protestant clergyman had a very full congregation, upwards of nine hundred persons attending, that being the day for administering the holy sacrament. The weather still continuing very hot, many were obliged, during the service, to walk out for a little while to prevent their fainting, whilst some had actually fainted away. It is the custom in Germany, that when people wish to receive the sacrament, they neither eat nor drink till the ceremony is entirely over.

'The worthy clergyman preached about an hour and a quarter; he then consecrated the bread and wine, which ought to be uncovered during the ceremony. There were about one hundred and eighty communicants. A quarter of an hour after the ceremony, before they had quitted the church, more than sixty of the communicants were taken ill, several died in the most violent agonies; others of a more vigorous constitution survived by the help of medical assistance: a most violent consternation prevailed among the whole congregation and throughout the town. It was concluded, that the wine had been poisoned, and so it was generally believed. The sacristan, and several others belonging to the vestry, were immediately arrested and put in irons.

'The clergyman on the succeeding Sunday preached a great deal of enthusiasm, and pointed out to his congregation several others concerned in the plot. This enthusiastic sermon, I am sorry to say, is in print; as also the violent proceedings of the clergyman and the magistrate against many of the unfortunate people arrested.

'The persons accused underwent very great hardships: during the space of a week they were confined in a dungeon, and some of them even put to the torture, but they still persisted in their innocence.

'On the Sunday following, the magistrate ordered that a chalice of wine uncovered, should be placed for the space of an hour upon the altar, which had scarcely elapsed, when they beheld the wine filled with myriads of insects; and, by tracing whence they came, it was at length perceived, by the rays of the sun, that they issued from the grave of the lady who had been buried the preceding fortnight. The people not belonging to the vestry were dismissed, and four men were employed to open the grave and the coffin: in doing which, two of them dropt down and expired on the spot, and the other two were only saved by the utmost exertion of medical talents. It is beyond the power of words to describe the horrid sight of the corpse when the coffin was opened. The whole was an entire mass of putrefaction; and it was now clearly demonstrated that the numerous insects, both large and small, together with the effluvia which had issued from the body, had caused this pestilential infection, which was a week before attributed to poison. I am happy to add that, on this discovery, the persons accused were instantly liberated, and every atonement made by the clergyman and magistrate for their misguided conduct.'

A simple regulation against *Begging* has been successfully adopted in several parts of Germany:—whoever gives money

to a street-beggar is obliged to pay a guilder (about two shillings sterling) for every farthing thus bestowed; one half of the penalty is given to the informer, who is usually the beggar himself, and the other to the poor's fund.

The following plan of insurance against fire has likewise been attended with the happiest consequences:

'Through the whole principality of a German prince, be it ever so extensive, all the houses, barns, cottages, stables, and buildings of every kind, except public edifices, such as churches and chapels, are numbered. Every proprietor delivers a statement in writing of the value of his houses and moveable effects, in doing which he is allowed to estimate them at any amount he thinks proper. If a person be suspected of having ensured his house and effects at a higher value than they really are, an enquiry into the real value is made by commissioners appointed for that purpose, and their determination is decisive. Be a cottage ever so small, the proprietor of it is obliged to ensure it, and the little property it may contain: hence every house, &c. in the whole principality being ensured, and the assurance money being demanded only half-yearly, and that in such sums as are proportionate to the loss or damages by fire which have been incurred in the whole principality; each person's half-yearly *quota* is paid very willingly, as it is in general but very trifling. Nay it frequently happens that no demand whatever is made at the end of the six months, there not being any thing destroyed by fire in the respective principality during that interval. This, I think, will appear to every one a judicious plan of assurance; for, should a whole village or the greater part of a town be destroyed at one fire, every proprietor's loss will be made up without delay; and yet as the loss is in part borne by every proprietor in the whole principality, the proportional expence is reduced so low, that but few persons pay more than one shilling *per annum*, and many not even so much. Let us suppose the whole capital of a prince's dominion to be a hundred millions of guilders, and it should happen, a circumstance indeed hitherto unheard-of, that one million should be destroyed by fire; the loss that would fall upon any individual would be very trifling, owing to the assessment being made on the whole principality, and not on any particular district: but as such a case does not happen in a century, the annual contribution of each proprietor is very trifling, and no person is obliged to pay a single farthing till a fire happens.'

We cannot entirely approve the direct controul of government in the management of public schools. If the prince and his ministers be wise and virtuous, their superintendance would, doubtless, be followed by the most salutary effects: but, should they happen to be weak, depraved, or ambitious of rule, their interference in the education of the country is to be deprecated. Ignorance is the fatal chain which rivets oppression; and even in free and enlightened countries, men have been found who have unblushingly maintained that the people

should be debarred from knowlege: yet the liberal courses of study, which are prosecuted in some of the Protestant states of Germany, already augur the growth of rational freedom, and merit the mutual encouragement of princes and their subjects. Dr. R. is not a little pleased with the reflection that they will, moreover, place the youth of his native country beyond the reach of *quacks*,—a dreadful race, against whom he wages an open and unrelenting warfare. We have no partiality for mountebanks in medicine, philosophy, or religion; and we entertain very little charity for the individual, who can deliberately practise on the ignorance or the credulity of his neighbour: but it happens very fortunately for the world, that venders of drugs can have no interest in disseminating poison; that the basis of some of their most vaunted remedies is an innocent, or, perhaps, a seasonable stimulus; that the virtues of others are confirmed by experience; and that all may operate more or less on the imagination, and even, in some cases, effect a cure merely by creating confidence. We admit that the particulars here stated are of the most distressing kind: but the vulgar may equally suffer from the contents of an apothecary's shop. At all events, we are not quite prepared to affirm that 'the bombastical advertisements or hand-bills of these mischievous impostors, quack-doctors, are, in fact, the promoters of universal pestilence, and act as slow poison to thousands;' and that 'the impostors themselves are pests of the human race, and universal executioners.'—Space and time are too often measured by the perceptions and feelings of individuals. Enough of the Doctor's paper and leisure, we must confess, appeared to us to have been expended on the would-be-physicians: but he again puts them to the route in his second volume; and, meanwhile, 'he hopes his readers will not be displeased at his having given them a *brief* account of the various calamities which these fellows have produced in Germany, though so very much guarded against.' To compensate in some measure for his brevity, he transcribes, from his own translation of *the Robbers*, a passage which savours rather too strongly of the latitude of *Bornheim*. Dr. R. and his sly readers will comprehend the full force of our allusion. No delicate female will thank the author for such quotations; nor are they necessary to strengthen the argument, since objects equally loathsome with that described by Schiller are, alas! too familiar to the observation of regular practitioners, and too fatally removed beyond their skill.

The many and substantial reforms introduced by Joseph II., especially his abolition of the observance of idle holidays and his repression of the petty tyranny of the nobles, are more

pleasing themes, and deservedly occupy a distinguished place in the account of these travels.

Dr. R.'s excursions in the neighbourhood of Frankfort are related in a manner sufficiently rambling and digressive. The forest of Spessart is said, in the text, to be one of the largest in Europe, extending fifty English miles in length: but we are told, in a note, that the Black forest is the largest in Germany, 'being sixty *days'* journey in length, and nine in breadth.' Without allowing his readers leisure to adjust these dimensions, Dr. R. immediately descants on highway robberies and executions, as he had formerly done on postillions and impostors. A sublime hanging scene, *à l'Allemande*, is again copied from the Robbers; and again we are respectfully informed that this tragedy 'is translated into English by the author of this work.'

Fortunately for the lovers of gayer painting, the Doctor and his pupils penetrated into a delightful country; and the prospect from a commanding eminence, when the sun 'was making a golden set,'—and also next morning, when 'Sol's bright beams, darting lustre around, broke through and dispelled the darkness,'—give full scope to the writer's talents for description. Aware, perhaps, that the humane reader might be anxious for the subsistence of the party on the top of the hill, he artfully blends some very comfortable intelligence with his bold and majestic colouring of the landscape. The good pastor of Cronenburg had provided 'a man with an ass, with panniers full-packed, and thrown across his back.—The two large panniers contained several blankets, and other coverings, also half a dozen of excellent wine, and a small collation of several sorts of provisions.'

The magnitude of the cabbages in Hesse-Darmstadt withdraws our attention from Mentz, and from the expulsion of the Protestants from the Palatinate, to the preparation of sour-krout. Large cabbages, however, are not the only boast of Darmstadt; for it is noticed on account of its salubrious air, its gay court, its cheap provisions, and its polite and hospitable society.

The intimation of a journey performed mostly on foot, and directed to Oppenheim, Worms, Manheim, Spire, Heidelberg, &c. during six weeks, in which the travellers 'remarked every thing worthy notice,' led us to expect very ample gleanings: but most of the places mentioned are dispatched with brevity, and in the form of uninteresting memoranda. The Doctor, indeed, dilates on the shocking ravages committed by the French soldiery towards the end of the seventeenth century: but events of such notoriety constitute no essential part of a book of travels.—One short sentence requires explanation.

In

In the language of Goody Two Shoes, *See here it is:* 'The almond trade, *of which* great quantities grow along the Bergstrasse, is very considerable.'—Do almonds really ripen in Germany? and, if they do, what are the modes of plantation and culture? In the most sheltered districts of the south of France, they are frequently blighted in spring.

In their progress down the Rhine, Dr. R. and his two English pupils halted at Rudesheim, to partake of the *Feast of Bacchus*, which is annually celebrated about the middle of October in all the towns and villages of the Rhingaw. Dulcet strains and lovely maidens enlivened the procession, and the banquet and the dance were prolonged till four o'clock next morning; 'when,' says the Doctor, 'we adjourned to the Mayor's house, where we enjoyed a few hours of sweet and sound repose; to which our mental as well as bodily exertions during the dance, no doubt, considerably contributed.' Our three travellers thanked the Mayor for "the feast of *reason* and the flow of *soul*." As well might they have complimented the Monks of Erbach on their abstinence and austerity:

'I am inadequate to the task of describing as I could wish the life of poverty, as it is called, which the Monks lead in this convent. It is the richest in all Germany; and the traveller who visits it is astonished at the princely and luxurious life of its inhabitants. They have an excellent pack of hounds, with a stable of fine hunters; apartments magnificently furnished; a dozen of most beautiful singing girls; and their wine-cellar excites the utmost astonishment. A coach and four might easily drive round in the cellar, and turn in it with the greatest facility. The number of large full casks is really amazing, each being about seventeen or eighteen feet in height. They have six fine billiard-tables, which are contained in three large rooms; and, besides all this, an excellent band of musicians. Their hospitality towards foreigners and strangers is surprizing; and a traveller scarcely meets with such a reception in any other part of the globe. I call them *fat monks*, there being very few among them, who do not weigh sixteen or eighteen stone, and several even exceed it. But it is at the same time equally surprizing, how they keep the common people in ignorance. One instance shall suffice for the many which I saw.

'Before the dinner was served, to which we were invited by the Prelate, we had sufficient time to take a walk in an adjacent wood, where the Monks pretend to work a number of miracles, and to which thousands of the deluded people of distant Roman Catholic countries make pilgrimages annually. The palace in the wood, where these miracles are wrought, is called *Hülfe Gottes*, *i. e.* "God's Help," (it ought to be called a place for deception and blasphemy). According to the legend, a small wooden crucifix of the Saviour was by carelessness stuck in a hollow tree, where it remained for a long time, crying "God help me! God help me!" At length a Friar came, and removed the cause of the piteous exclamation: since which the

crucifix has performed innumerable miracles. Every pilgrim who pays a visit to it is obliged to bestow some donation; as a compensation for which he receives some picture, or relique, from the Monks, by which means they accumulate a very large annual revenue. I could give innumerable instances of the frauds practised under the name of Miracles, but one may suffice as an example of the people's credulity, and of the Priest's impiety, which is performed annually at Cologne.

'On certain holy days the Virgin Mary is shewn to the multitude, who *is* made to weep at the performance of a mock crucifixion of our Saviour in her presence; while the priestly impostors are driving nails through the hands and feet of the son, tears fall from the eyes of the mother. This juggle may be accounted for thus: holes being pierced in the corners of the eyes of the image, by moving gently a small vessel within side, some few drops of water are made to run through the apertures; at certain intervals, to render the scene more affecting, a nun who is hidden, but quite within hearing, makes a most lamentable moaning. By a mechanical contrivance, also, to make the fraud pass still more current, when the nails enter the feet and hands of our supposed Saviour, some drops of blood are seen to issue.

'When we came back, the dinner was immediately served. It consisted of two courses, each of about thirty-two covers; and a dessert, served up in a princely style. Every Monk at Erbach has four bottles of the best wine for his daily allowance; and when they entertain strangers, they are allowed to drink *ad libitum*.

'Before we set off for Geisenheim, the Prelate showed us his private stables, magnificent carriages, and pack of hounds; it is not in my power to describe the luxurious life of these debauched hypocrites, suffice it to say, there are few princes able to cope with them.'

We can easily believe that these overgrown tenants of the cloister are not the chosen spirits of the earth: but, in an abundant and hospitable country, the reverend Mentor and his young friends might have procured a comfortable dinner without any obligation to 'debauched hypocrites.'

The humiliating submission of the Emperor Henry to the Pope, and the claims of the latter to supremacy, are known to every reader who is conversant in the history of Europe: but many, we doubt not, are strangers to the jolly *attractions* of St. Goar:

'At the *Green Man* inn there are preserved two large silver goblets, of great antiquity and curious workmanship, the sides of which are embossed with figures and inscriptions. One of them was presented to the city of *Saint Goar* by *Christina*, Queen of Sweden; and the other by one of the Princes of Hesse, of the House of Rheinfels. These goblets were entrusted to this house on account of the public courts respecting the police of the town being formerly held here, and are now become heir-looms. The stranger being seated on a chair in the middle of the room, has a heavy silver collar put round his neck. The landlord, after having placed a gilded crown upon his

his head, reads a short sermon out of a large old book; after which he is asked "whether he will choose to be baptized with wine or with water?" If he says with water, a large quantity is poured upon his head; but if he prefer wine, (which is generally the case,) he is obliged to drink a certain number of toasts out of the two silver goblets, something similar to that in England of being sworn at Highgate.

'The newly baptized stranger then writes his name in the antique book, where he finds already those of a great number of persons of all ranks and countries. The goblets pass jovially round, and several jocund songs are sung. The collar which the stranger has on his neck, is said to have belonged to the two sons of *Charlemagne*, and to have been set apart for the use of the city on the day of their reconciliation. If the company be jocular, this ceremony is indeed very entertaining, and the conclusion is, that several bottles of Rhenish are emptied on the occasion. This ceremony is called *krönung*, "coronation."

'Every thing here breathes the air of pleasure and joy. There are few places where a man can have so many different pleasures for so little expence. Wine in superfluity: the best kinds are that of *Johannisberg*, *Assmanshausen*, *Mannebach*, and *Diebach*, which are not inferior to *old hock*; all kinds of fish, game, and other provision in abundance; singing, dancing, and various other amusements, fill up the vacant hours. The people of this place are distinguished for good living beyond those of any other part of Germany. The dinner of people of rank, which takes up nearly two hours, generally consists of two courses, each containing sixteen or eighteen covers, and the wine is served from large quart bottles, in half-pint goblets. Nothing is taken so much care of here as the *animal* part. There are however several other places in Germany, where the people in general are gluttonous to the highest excess. In my tour through *Bavaria*, and at *Vienna*, I observed that there was scarcely a space of half an hour between breakfast and dinner, and hardly an hour between dinner and supper, but is appropriated to eating or drinking of some sort. The interval of time is employed in a short walk, and going to the play. The coffee-houses in the latter city, of which there are about eighty, are mostly magnificent. In the beer-houses, where wine also is sold, a person may be accommodated with all sorts of eatables. Many of them are very elegantly furnished, like those of Francfort on the Mayn. In some you see marble tables, beautiful green, or red damask tapestry, large looking-glasses with rich gilt frames, and clocks *à la-mode de Paris*; and in all there is a perpetual eating and drinking. At *Munich* in particular, when it happens that a guest has satiated himself at table, he retires into an adjoining room, and employs every artificial means *um sich Luft zu machen*; literally, to procure air, *i. e.* to empty himself; and returns to the company as if nothing had happened.'

Under the article *Coblentz*, we are treated with another piece of dark scenery, depicted with strange minuteness, and terminated by a description of the miseries of the exiles at Kamtschatka.

chatka. The pallid reader casts his eye on the note, and learns that the quotations are from Kotzebue's Conspiracy of Kamtschatka; and, moreover, that this performance is translated by Dr. Render. The Doctor likewise bestows a handsome encomium on the ardour of mind with which his uncorrupted pupils received his *exclamations;* thinks that his pains, as the tutor of such susceptible young friends, were highly rewarded; and has 'many times wished to enjoy once more the pleasure of becoming the guardian of youth.' We were truly concerned to observe that the Beotian atmosphere of Cologne should have deprived susceptible young gentlemen of their ardour of intellect even for a moment. When the soldier who accompanied them to the inn with their luggage, and who is represented as a 'poor dirty clown,' began to tell them how very old and infirm he was, that he had seven children to maintain, and that his wife was lame,' the tender-hearted youths were fairly at a fault, and 'did not know what to say to the soldier's appeal, nor to what purpose it was directed;' but the Doctor perfectly well understood his meaning, 'and gave him twelve stivers;' &c.

In the dirty and melancholy streets of Cologne, idleness, ignorance, monkery, and priestcraft, have long reigned triumphant:

'One third part of the inhabitants are nothing but privileged beggars, who form a regular corporation: they sit upon rows of stools placed in every church, and take precedence according to their seniority: when the oldest dies, the person next him takes his place. The old people, who belong to this fraternity, consider a place upon these stools as a provision for a son, or a marriage-portion for a daughter.

'Another third of the inhabitants are ecclesiastics. The streets are crowded with beggarly monks, and with a race whom they call abbés. They are rough, dirty clowns, besmeared all over with snuff, who game for *blafferts* with the lowest fellows in public ale-houses. After having said mass in the morning, they run of errands, clean shoes, and are porters and pimps for the rest of the day. Strangers may easily be introduced to some female nunneries, and even into their sick-rooms, by means of their assistance. The nuns never allow persons of the male sex to enter the interior of their convents, except on festival days, as when a sister nun takes the veil; or, which is more common, when they are sick, on which occasion they are allowed to receive them in the rooms set apart for their convenience. A stranger frequently meets in such apartments half a dozen, or perhaps more, pretended sick sisters together. These are generally friends, and understand each other perfectly well. If it however should happen that any of them prove pregnant, they are immured alive.'

Passing over an adventure at a Convent, which might figure in a sentimental novel, but which Dr. R. should have been the

the last person to divulge, we proceed to the remaining third of the Colognese.

'The other third of the inhabitants of Cologne consists of a few patricians, of merchants, and of mechanics, on the effects of whose industry and exertions the rest live. Upon the whole, Cologne is at least two centuries behind the rest of Germany in the improvement of arts and sciences. Bigotry, ill manners, clownishness, and slothfulness, are perceptible in every part of it. The speech, dress, furniture of the houses, want of lamps in the streets by night, in short every thing is totally different from what is seen in the other parts of the empire. I do not pretend to say there are no exceptions, as I have been acquainted with some Roman Catholic families, who are distinguished for their taste and elegant manner of living; but these are very few indeed.'

Leaving Father *Simplicius Hahn* and other *holy quacks* to answer for their foul misdeeds, and allowing absurd Romish miracles to answer for themselves, we beg leave to introduce to the acquaintance of our readers Anna Maria Schaurmann;

'A lady remarkable for the early maturity, as well as the uncommon comprehensiveness of her mental powers. It is said, that at the age of three years she was able to read books in her native language with discrimination; and that when she was six years old she composed several pieces, both in prose and verse, upon various subjects, which are deemed worthy of places in the cabinets of the curious. I saw several specimens of her composition in the cabinet of baron Hüpsch at that city.

'It is also affirmed, that in the space of a few days she learned the art of embroidery; which, with no great practice, she carried to the highest degree of perfection. Baron Hüpsch showed us two specimens. They are in the same style as those I saw in London at Miss Linwood's exhibition.

'She could speak all living languages with great fluency, and was very familiar with the Greek and Hebrew. Every thing she did, appears to have been extraordinary; and it is said, that she hastened her death by eating a considerable quantity of *spiders!*'

Whoever is desirous of a strongly coloured comparative view of the effects of popery and protestantism on society may peruse Dr. R.'s picture of Cologne. His extensive range of castigation embraces priests, monks, players, mountebanks, quack-doctors, and itinerant dentists; and he relates some anecdotes of the latter description of gentry, which were certainly calculated to provoke all the severity of his strictures.

The remaining parts of the second volume require no minuteness of examination. Westphalia is rather geographically dissected, than delineated with interest; and the observations on Hamburg, Bremen, Hanover, &c. though circumstantial, add little to the reports of former travellers. The history of the Secret Tribunals will, however, prove highly gratifying to those

those who are unacquainted with the singular phænomenon of such associations; and the present traveller possessed several opportunities of obtaining particular and authentic information on this curious subject.

The *concise* view of Germany, consisting of little more than names and ciphers, extends beyond 100 pages; and the vocabulary and dialogues employ between 40 and 50 more.

All the valuable information conveyed in these volumes might easily have been comprized in one; yet the work, unequal as it is in point of merit, will reward the trouble of perusal.

ART. V. *Specimens of the early English Poets;* to which is prefixed an Historical Sketch of the Rise and Progress of the English Poetry and Language. By George Ellis, Esq. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Nicol.

OUR readers will recollect that we had occasion to notice a former publication by Mr. Ellis on this subject *; and the work is now so much enlarged, that it must be regarded as almost entirely new. It forms a very entertaining collection; and to those who have not access to extensive and curious libraries, it will prove a valuable acquisition, since it will introduce them to the knowlege of many authors whose productions are seldom to be procured.

The volumes are introduced by some preliminary observations on the origin of our language and poetry. Mr. Ellis is of opinion that the changes in the Saxon tongue, which constitutes so great a part of our language, consist in the omission of its inflections; similar to the process by which the Latin was changed into the Romania dialects.

After the account which we have given of Mr. Warton's History of English poetry †, it is unnecessary to follow the present writer in his view of the Saxon or Norman poets; and indeed the barrenness of the subject is not very inviting. In justice to Mr. Ellis, however, it must be observed that he has abridged with judgment, and that his own remarks always merit attention. This sketch comes down to the reign of Henry VIII.—A short history of each poet is introduced, with general criticisms on his works, and specimens; some of which are perhaps longer than was necessary.

From volume ii, we shall favour our readers with a sonnet, by Samuel Daniel:

---

* Vol. i. N. S. p. 449. † See Rev. vols. 51, 52, 59, 66.

' Beauty

'Beauty, sweet love, is like the morning dew,
Whose short refresh upon the tender green,
Cheers for a time, but till the sun doth shew,
And straight 'tis gone as it had never been.

'Soon doth it fade that makes the fairest flourish,
Short is the glory of the blushing rose:
The hue which thou so carefully dost nourish,
Yet which at length thou must be forced to lose.

'When thou, surcharg'd with burthen of thy years,
Shall bend thy wrinkles homeward to the earth,
And when in beauty's lease, expir'd, appears
The date of age, the calends of our death—
But ah! no more—this must not be foretold,
For women grieve to think they must be old.'

There is some merit in the succeeding poem, which we do not remember to have seen published before:—the author is unknown:

'TO THE MOON. [From an old MS.]

'Thou silent moon, that look'st so pale,
So much exhausted, and so faint,
Wandering over hill and dale,
Watching oft the kneeling saint—
Hearing his groans float on the gale—
No wonder thou art tir'd and pale.

'Yet I have often seen thee bring
Thy beams o'er yon bare mountain's steep;
Then, with a smile, their lustre fling
Full on the dark and roaring deep;
When the pilgrim's heart did fail,
And when near lost the tossing sail.

'Sure, that passing blush deceives;
For thou, fair nymph, art chaste and cold;
Love *our* bosom seldom leaves;
But thou art of a different mould.
Hail, chaste queen! for ever hail!
And, prithee, look not quite so pale!

'Yet stay—perhaps thou'st travell'd far,
Exulting in thy conscious light:
Till, as I fear, some youthful star
Hath spread his charms before thy sight;
And, when he found his arts prevail,
He left thee, sickening, faint, and pale.'

We could extract with pleasure many of the compositions noticed under the reigns of Charles I. and II., but they must be known to most of our poetical readers.—In the remarks with which the author concludes, he assigns the complete formation of our

our present language to the beginning of the thirteenth century. He adds;

'From this time to the reign of Edward III. our infant language was enriched, or perhaps overloaded, by a constant accession of French words. This, indeed, might be expected. Wealth, when accompanied by freedom, generally gives birth to magnificence, but it does not of necessity and immediately become the parent of taste and invention. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, even our kings and nobles were in the habit of expending their whole stock of gaiety, as well as their treasure, on the four great festivals of the year; and the intervening times of leisure were employed in devising modes of amusement, and providing a disposition to be amused. But as the commercial part of the nation had something else to do, they seem to have contented themselves with copying, as nearly as they could, the pleasures of their superiors. Their festivities were conducted with the same minute attention to ceremonial, and diversified with the same or nearly similar sports and representations. Their tables exhibited the same specimens of complicated cookery. The recitation of tales of chivalry was necessary to the solemnity of these festivals; and as the French minstrels had, long since, preoccupied the fabulous era of every known history, their English successors were reduced to the necessity of translating. In executing this task, under the constraint of finding a constant succession of rhymes, in a language which was hitherto rude and untractable, they might often be led to borrow the words and phrases of the original. At least it was their interest to adopt and give a currency to every new term, which had acquired the authority of colloquial usage: so that the compositions of our early writers are become nearly unintelligible to those, who are not familiarly acquainted with the Norman vocabulary.

'It is very possible that our language may not have received much real improvement from this indiscriminate adoption of foreign idioms; but perhaps it was in some measure indebted to them for its reception at court, where it supplanted the Norman-French, which had exclusively prevailed there, from the time of the conquest. This alteration, which insured to our national literature all the advantages that patronage can bestow, seems to have taken place in the reign of Edward III. whose policy led him to excite a hatred of France among his subjects, and who proscribed the exclusive use of French in our laws, and in the elements of education. Gower, as we have seen, commenced his literary career by aspiring to the character of a French poet, and only began his English work in his old age, during the reign and by the command of Richard II. The fashionable dialect, therefore, had probably changed during the interval, and it may be presumed, that this change also procured us the advantage of Chaucer's talents, which, from the circumstances of his birth and education, would naturally have been employed, had he written a few years sooner, in cultivating a foreign rather than his native language.'

We shall here close our account of this work; which we recommend to the lover of English poetry, as a judicious and cheap

cheap selection, containing very few quotations from those poets whose productions have been republished by the booksellers, and exhibiting the progressive improvements of our language more completely than any compilation of this kind which has been hitherto attempted.

ART. VI. *Poems.* By Peter Bayley jun. Esq. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Miller. 1803.

WE cannot help suspecting that the name which stands in the title-page of this book is only a *nom de guerre*; and that a former acquaintance amuses himself with our perplexity in guessing at him behind his mask. If this be the case, we seriously do not approve this literary game at blind-man's buff; and, as the volume contains nothing of which its author needs to be ashamed, we must wish that he had made known his real appellation.

The poems are of different characters; and we shall give a short view of each class.—The satirical pieces consist of, 1st, *an apology for Writing*, which opens the volume; and which contains some free observations on modern writers, with a vindication of Mr. West's paintings against the gibing attacks of Peter Pindar.—These lines afford a fair specimen of it:

'*A.* With you I praise the pencil that bids rise
Heroes of other days before our eyes,
Perpetuates the features of the *brave*,
And all the worth that decorates its *age*.
Oft have I bless'd the pencil that can steal
From absence half its bitterness, reveal
The form of one belov'd, and bless our eyes
With friends that wander under other skies;
Still must I join the verse that ridicules
The flatterers of those presumptuous fools,
Who give their numskulls, dress'd by art divine,
And highly varnish'd, in rich frames to shine.
Lawrence, or Hoppner, or Sir William, knows
What he who paints a portrait undergoes;
How e'en their skill may fail to satisfy
The cravings of self-love and vanity:
They know how oft the wither'd cheek demands
The bloom of youthful roses from their hands,
How oft the dead dim eye demands the ray
Of fires extinct, alas! for many a day;
And he who carries dulness in his face
Expects expression, liveliness, and grace.
He who does suit and service with his art,
To these, at best, but acts a servile part,

The nurse of folly: yet less guilty far
Than those convenient tools (if such there are,
As rugged Barry seems to hint) who lend
Their rooms for meetings with a private friend.

'*F.* Mere surliness in Barry, spleen in you—
Nay, if this rude invective you pursue,
Music, that heavenly art, whose pleasing sway
At once the cruel and the mild obey;
Music, that sternest, fiercest souls, has tam'd,
Music itself will hardly pass unblam'd.

'*A.* You think me of my censures too profuse;—
'Tis not the art itself, but its abuse
That I condemn. Is there no food for rage
In the perverting spirit of the age,
When the great masters of the moving lyre,
Whose pow'rs sublimest feelings might inspire,
Charm the rapt sense no more? for Handel's song,
All various, lofty, plaintive, sweet, or strong,
Of pow'r to give to softest sadness birth,
Or lift the soul above the scenes of earth;
For the rich sweetness of Corelli's strain,
For Purcel's magic, lo, a quavering train,
Who place all music in the dexterous skill
Of high bravura, neat shake, or smooth trill;
These swarm in all our concerts, fill the stage,
And gain loud plaudits from a stupid age.'

In these lines, as in the rest of the poem, we observe great incorrectness; and, a creditable degree of vigour, the author fails to please, because his style of versification is unformed, and he has not caught the art of thinking poetically. Perhaps, also, Satire is not his proper vein; and the best that we can say in favour of this piece is that it is short: but we can make no apology for the notes. Thirteen pages of *notes* to twenty-three pages of rhime! "Out upon it."

A poem in blank-verse succeeds, intitled *An Evening in the Vale of Festiniog.* We shall give a specimen of the author's talent for description, which deserves commendation:

'Sure 'twere a blessed lot, here, in this vale,
To loiter in sweet sadness, so the prime
Of Nature and of spring might fill the soul
With their delicious incense; or to sit,
Defended from the heat of summer suns,
By the cool shade of interposing boughs,
And taste the roving breeze——Yet not alone
To its fresh breathings and reviving balm
Would I commit myself.——And one I know,
One gentle maid, whose mild and peaceful soul
Is sway'd and temper'd by the very hand

Of

Of softness and complacency; her heart
True and obedient to the touch divine
Of Nature, and alive to every thrill
That flows from her pure influence, would own
Her magic in this vale—O gentle maid!
Oh, were it granted to my longing sight
Hither to see thee bend thy graceful steps,
To watch the rising gladness of thine eyes,
The mild effusion of that chasten'd ray
That dawns with humid lustre, like the beam
Of dewy morn pour'd on the silent breast
Of the still waters! — Yes—in thought I see
Thy kindling eye, I see the joy that dwells
In all thy inward thoughts, that speaks, display'd
In every feature; while the playful breeze,
Fanning aside thy dark-brown locks, reveals
Thy polish'd forehead, tranquil, and serene,
The mansion of no frown: thy dark-brown locks,
Uplifted by the breeze, in gentle waves
Float on the dazzling snow of thy fair neck,
Blending its lucid white with lightest veil
Of pearly shade: I see thy rosy mouth,
Parted by such a smile as angels wear,
And thy soft cheek, suffus'd with all the glow
Of health and rapture; while, entranc'd, thine eye
Drinks the bright prospect——Oh, that thou indeed
Wast present with me!—Thou hast learn'd to look
On these things with no idle ken; thy mind
Has long regarded a free intercourse
With Nature's voice as the unfailing stay
And guardian of thy feelings, as the rock,
The shield, and anchor of thy purest joys.
And therefore art thou happy—And thy mind
Is stored with sweet and pleasant images,
And made the habitation of those charms
Which thou hast seen and felt; and after-days
Shall see thee feeding on the blissful thoughts
Which thou hast treasur'd in thy memory.'

The *Forest Fay* displays considerable fancy, and is composed in stanzas, with more ease and happiness than either of the former poems. It reminds us, however, of Drayton's Fairy, and of Mrs. Radcliffe's Song of the Spirit.

We next meet with *Verses to the Power of Fancy*, written in quatrains, to which we cannot afford much praise.

Our mental palates are then presented with a course of *Sonnets*, a dish on which we have long been surfeited.—Here we have the usual seasoning; *wild woods*, *silver streams*, *blue hills*, and *evening suns*; in spite of all which, the writer chooses to be completely miserable,—and so, in course, are his readers.

The

The verses to *Lydia* appear to be imitated, with considerable success, from Metastasio's celebrated Ode (*the Indifferent*), "*Grazie all' inganni tuoi,*" &c.

The Ivy-Seat has too much of the whining affectedly simple manner which we have taken some pains to expose in other writers.

Among several small pieces which follow, we distinguished the lines

'TO A FRIEND REMONSTRATING.

'Ah! chide me not if yet once more
I seek that love long sought in vain;
Nor blame me if, while I adore,
My vows are answer'd with disdain.

'Yes, I confess 'tis poor, 'tis weak
To droop, to sit with folded arms,
To bear a fever in my cheek,
And sorrow for an ingrate's charms.

'Yet let me still my cares retain,
Still droop, with folded arms still sigh;
Nor mock me that I still remain
The willing captive of her eye.

'For Love, with all his keenest smart
Divine enchantment mingles still;
And, while he fires the conquer'd heart,
He charms with many a pleasing thrill.

'And tortur'd thus, thus doom'd to mourn,
I still must feed this cherish'd grief,
And could my peace once more return,
My heart would scorn the poor relief.

'Then chide me not, if yet once more
I seek that love long sought in vain;
Nor blame me if, while I adore,
My vows are answer'd with disdain.'

Also;

'TO A LADY SINGING.

'O, can that heart untouch'd remain
By all Love's pleasures, all Love's pain,
When, while thou sing'st another's woes,
Thy cheek with deeper crimson glows;
When, as thou wak'st the feeling strain,
Through every clear translucent vein
That strays amid thy forehead's snow
The streams of life more swiftly flow;
When, mix'd with many a passion'd sigh,
Upon thy lips the accents die;
When sweeter languors, softer dews,
Those twin bright orbs of light suffuse?

'And

'And I have seen thy bosom's snow
Throb with the luxury of woe;
And I have mark'd th' impassion'd glance
That speaks the soul's delicious trance;
And felt the poison of thine eye;
And drank the magic of thy sigh.
And, as the sweet infection stole
Through all my veins, and fir'd my soul,
I wish'd one timid glance might tell
How deep I felt the subtile spell.
Then, Lady, sing of love again;
And while thou wak'st the feeling strain,
While, mix'd with many a passion'd sigh,
Upon thy lips the accents die,
And while again thy bosom's snow
Throbs with the luxury of woe,
O, pour on me the thrilling glance
That speaks the soul's delicious trance.—
And if I dare one look to steal,
That look shall tell thee all I feel;
And, Lady, then thine alter'd eye
Shall feed my hopes, or bid them die.'

The poem on *a First View of the World* is written in rhyme, and possesses nearly the same qualities, good and evil, which appear in *the Apology for Writing.*—'*The Delusions of Love,*' in two parts, are sung in blank verse; presenting many good lines, but wanting the high polish that is requisite to excite interest on a subject which has long exhausted every resource of genius and taste.

The *Comparison* (of Woman to the Moon) is not very happily executed: we were *weary of this moon, and wished it to change.*

Some *Elegiac Stanzas*, founded (we presume) on a real incident, similar to the Elegy in Shenstone on the Result of a Licentious Amour, deserve to be kindly treated, on account of their moral: but their versification is heavy.

The *Fisherman's Wife* is a burlesque on the false taste which has produced a cant of pretended simplicity, but real dulness.

The *Norwegian Hunter* closes the volume; and with this short piece we shall conclude our extracts:

'Where no warm breeze e'er bade to flow
The heights of Dofrine's stubborn snow,
Where scarce a sun beam cheers the day,
The hardy hunter seeks his prey.
While round his pine-built cabin roars
Each storm that varying winter pours,
He, fearless, from the mountain's brow
Or marks the clouds that roll below,

Or lists the din of storms that beat
With ceaseless rage beneath his feet.

'But oft from some projecting steep
Th' impetuous winds long-sapping sweep
A waste of snow.—With thund'ring bound
Down rushes fast the gathering mound,
O'er crags, o'er pines it drives amain
With hideous crash, and whelms the plain.

'The Hunter only 'scapes—his way
He took at early dawn of day,
Brav'd the keen blast and drifting snow,
To chase the elk or bounding roe—
At eve, fatigued, he quits the plain,
And seeks his peaceful cot again;
Bethinks him of the fire that burns
To cheer his home when he returns;
Anticipates his children's smiles,
His wife's caresses; and beguiles
With soothing thoughts his dreary way.
The toils, the pleasures of the day
Already he prepares to tell
To those with whom his rapt thoughts dwell;
Already he in thought beholds
The cot that all his treasure holds,
And thinks he sees his children raise
Their little hands, he sees them gaze
With wonder on the beamy horn,
From the elk's lofty forehead torn.
——————— Ah wretch! no more thy eyes shall see
Thy much lov'd cot—No more for thee
At eve the cheerful fire shall burn
To welcome thee at thy return—
Ah, wretch! for thee no more the smile
Of thy dear children shall beguile
The tedious hours, nor shall the care
Of thy fond wife again prepare
The simple meal, nor o'er thy bed
The soft fur of the rein-deer spread.—
All that was lovely to thine eyes
O'erwhelm'd in one sad ruin lies;
And oft, in midnight's awful gloom,
When thou revolv'st their early doom,
Thy fears shall bid before thine eyes
Spirits of other worlds arise;
And voices as of those so dear
Shall shriek upon thy startled ear.'

These poems certainly discover some fire, and some power of expression. If a second edition should be demanded, we earnestly recommend to the author a steady application of the file;

file; and an endeavour, in all parts of his book, to do better, even where he may at present conceive, and most readers will allow, that he has done well.

ART. VII. *Sermons on various Subjects*, preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D. D. 8vo. pp. 406. 8s. Boards. Hatchard.

"LAUGH where you must, be candid where you can," is the poet's rule, and we see no good reason for exempting the pulpit from its operation. Though Dr. Gardiner has too much good sense to subject himself to ridicule, he very charitably espouses the cause of his brethren who may unfortunately stand in this predicament. He enters his protest against giving ludicrous and ironical accounts of sermons, or parts of sermons, because 'the object may be not to increase knowlege but to excite derision.' Are sermons, however, such sacred compositions, that nothing but solemn criticism must approach them? If preachers discover 'a total want of discernment, of judgment, of taste,' and, we may add, of propriety and decorum, are we still bound to preserve our gravity, and to speak of their performances without a smile? The better rule, we think, is to allow, *without benefit of clergy*, that whatever is ridiculous may be ridiculed. The sermons and prayers of Baal's prophets were attacked by Elijah with ridicule and irony; and the sermons and prayers of the ministers of the true religion, if, through a total want of discretion, they abound with the ludicrous and absurd, may be fairly treated in the same way. In the punning and witty age of preaching, laughing in church was often unavoidable; and when ministers degraded themselves into punsters and low humourists, they excited the smile of the vulgar, and the contempt of the man of taste. Their witticisms, at the present day, are objects of our derision; and if any individuals were to attempt the revival of the same mode of preaching, they ought to receive no quarter either seriously or sarcastically. Dr. G. seems to condemn 'the ludicrous account of an absurd part of a sermon, because its object is not to increase the knowlege of the hearer:' but he should have considered that, as far as it may tend to improve his taste, and to correct excentricities in the discourses of the sacred orator, such representations may be beneficial.

We have been induced to offer these observations in consequence of a remark which occurs in this volume, not as preparative to a string of ludicrous criticisms on Dr. Gardiner's sermons. He affords us no occasion nor inducement of this kind,

but is uniformly grave, and preserves a dignity and decorum becoming his clerical profession. The general style of his sermons is plain and nervous; and his addresses are animated and persuasive. As a divine, his creed is in a manner prescribed; as a politician, his sentiments have an accordance with the principles of the Constitution; and as an inculcator of religious and moral duties, he adverts to the laws of Nature and to the laws of God.

The subjects of his discourses are; The Government of France and England contrasted; The Superiority of the Gospel Evidence of a Future State; On Ridicule in regard to Religion; On the present and future Consequences of Sin; On the Heavenly Life of the Christian; On Gratitude for signal Victories and National Deliverances; On the Insufficiency of Natural Religion; The Lord's Supper a Means of advancing in Holiness; On Patience in Affliction; On the Nature and Necessity of Zeal; on the Errors and Abuses of it; and on the Means of acquiring and increasing it; Injuries from Men considered as proceeding from God; and, On the Dispositions requisite for studying and receiving the Truth.

At the commencement, our attention is directed to a political rather than to a religious discussion; the first sermon having been preached on the fast-day of the year 1793, and professing to contrast the Governments of France and England. At that period, party differences ran high, and the atrocities committed by the pretended friends of liberty gave a transient fashion even to despotism itself. While Dr. Gardiner, however, expresses his detestation of the French Revolutionists, he does not forget the history of his own country in its struggles for liberty, nor renounce the principles of the British Constitution:

'There was a period, when our ancestors, like other uncivilized tribes, groaned under the yoke of despotism. Slavery and superstition pervaded the whole of society. It was not till after repeated struggles, after ignominious defeats and triumphant victories—the people sometimes trespassing on the power of the Prince, the Prince trampling on the rights of the people—it was not, I say, till after catastrophes the most melancholy and alarming, that the latter gained the ascendancy, and established the security of civil and religious freedom.

'The concessions obtained from a pusillanimous Sovereign, comprehended under the emphatick title of *Magna Charta*, were no doubt highly to be valued—but still they were insufficient and incomplete. This celebrated deed, called the bulwark of English liberty, conferred, it is true, new privileges and immunities on certain individuals—the barons, the clergy and principal merchants—that is, on those who before participated in the regal power; but the great bulk of mankind, the inferior orders of society, were still in a state of vassalage,

salage, subject to various grievances, and could claim but little or no protection from the law. It was not till towards the close of the last century, at the glorious Revolution, that stipulations were made, and a form of Government was defined, which had for its object the liberty and independence of the whole body of the people. Enabled to chuse their own Prince, they wisely prescribed their own terms. They had their rights properly investigated and ascertained, their privileges fully established. At this grand epoch, a work, the fruit of wisdom and maturing age, received its completion. The various powers of the complicated machine were duly balanced, so as to give energy and stability to the whole. The King, Lords, and Commons, have ever since kept a watchful and jealous eye over the encroachments of each other—and have mutually co-operated towards the liberty and safety of the subject, and the prosperity and aggrandizement of the State.

'It is this system of mixed Government, my brethren, peculiar to this highly favoured isle, that dispenses the most solid advantages around us—to enter into a short detail of which may not, I hope, at this crisis, be an unpleasant or unprofitable task. Our persons, free from molestation and controul, are subject to no grievance nor oppression, can receive no injury nor insult, but for which the law provides redress. No forcible detention or imprisonment of them can be authorised, but what the benefit of society demands to satisfy the just claims of honest creditors. No violent death, exile, nor corporal punishment can be inflicted, but what is sanctioned by the decision of our equals—and that, after the most clear and positive evidence, delivered in the face of the whole world, and proving that from a violation of the Laws of our country, we have forfeited all claim to their protection. Further, no boundaries are assigned to those talents and endowments of the mind which nature has given us, but what nature herself has set. The road to dignities and preferments is alike open to all. A laudable ambition is never checked in its career—and every day we see persons of ignoble origin, by the splendour of their genius and eminence of their virtues, occupy the most honourable and most lucrative offices of the State.'

After having given a farther detail of our civil and religious privileges, Dr. G. endeavours to describe the state of France; and, in adverting to the melancholy fate of Louis XVI., he refuses to admit that this case has an exact parallel in our own history. 'In point of inhumanity and injustice, (he says,) the one disappears before the other,—the differences between them are striking indeed. In the case of our *Charles*, direct violations of the people's rights were proved to have been committed, wilful acts of usurpation were attempted to be justified, regular armies, struggling on the one hand for liberty and on the other for prerogative, were drawn into the field,—long and obstinate battles were fought, and the blood of friends and relations slain stimulated an infatuated people to fury and revenge.' Indig-

nant as Dr. G. is against the French who imbrued their hands in the blood of their sovereign, he does not 'insinuate that the old French Government was not radically defective, or that the rights of man, properly understood, did not demand in it amelioration and reform:' but he wishes to guard his hearers against crude and visionary systems, and to impress their minds with a conviction of our many blessings, that we may not thoughtlessly risk their subversion.

Passing to the consideration of Dr. G. as a theologian, we must take some notice of his remarks on the Evidences of a Future State. Here he does not reject the natural arguments, as they are termed, but only evinces the superiority of the Evidence of the Gospel. He reprobates that extreme which represents Reason as incapable, by itself, of discovering any salutary truth, and man in his natural state as destitute of all sound judgment; for he justly observes that, if this were the case, it would be folly to attempt to instruct or convert the Heathens. It is allowed that, in a certain respect, they knew God, and had some perception of a future state; far inferior, however, to the light which was communicated by the Gospel.

Divines are more agreed respecting the degree of knowlege possessed by the Heathen on the article of a Future State, than on that which was revealed to the antient Jews. Much argument may be adduced to countenance Dr. Warburton's opinion on this subject; and even those who espouse the opposite side are obliged to own, that their faith was founded on no express promise or declaration of Moses.

'There was no detail, no explanation on the nature of a future happiness, no description of the circumstances attending it. These were to be inferred by reasoning on this complex principle—that since the Almighty calls himself the *God* of those departed in the faith, and that he is not the *God of the dead but of the living*, hereafter the righteous issuing from the dust will acquire a new life in body and soul to be happy for ever. Moreover, it is a fact that to whatever degree many of the Jews may have raised their hopes on this subject, the Sect of the *Sadducees* true *Epicureans* or Atheists had prevailed and taken root in the nation, had crept even into the Sanctuary, and every where met with so much encouragement and support, as to be of the first order in Church and State—persons however not believing the immateriality of the soul, and consequently not its immortal life. The *Pharisees* themselves from the authority of *Josephus*, who was one of that Sect, were accused of espousing the absurd doctrine of *Pythagoras*, that the souls of men migrated for an indefinite time from one body to another—thus shewing themselves more inclined to the vain speculations of Philosophers, than to this instruction of the wisest of Kings, *the dust shall return to the earth and the spirit unto God who gave it.*'

Hence

Hence it is inferred that

'Without revelation all the hopes of mankind were little better than chimeras, and that before Jesus Christ, the most enlightened and best informed stood in need of a more abundant portion of light to be able to expect absolutely an eternal state of happiness in body and soul after death.—Now this brilliant light is what St. Paul announces in my text, and which he extols in exclaiming, *Jesus Christ has brought life and immortality to light through the Gospel.*'

Dr. G. speaks of the doctrine of the Atonement as 'consoling and fundamental;' and he represents our Saviour, when expiring on the ignominious tree, as suffering 'torments equivalent to all those which sin deserved:' yet he asserts the eternity of hell torments; a doctrine which cannot be maintained, on this ground, consistently with the divine justice. We are inclined to believe that, with many clergymen, he has not sufficiently examined these subjects; and that he adduces the arguments arising from the future judgments of God, for moral purposes, rather than as topics of close and accurate investigation; wishing (to employ his own words) 'to snatch sinners from the fire of hell, by means of the fire itself.'

The sermon on 'the Heavenly Life of the Christian' is excellent, as it explains 'the marvellous art of putting the stamp of Heaven on transactions the most common and least important on earth.'

In the discourse on Patience, this virtue is defined to consist 'in regulating properly our sensibility in regard to temporal evils and misfortunes;' and many judicious observations are made to elucidate its principles, and to assist us in the practice of it. As a short specimen, we extract the conclusion:

'Patience is a duty which we are called to practise frequently every day. It is an art for the apprenticeship of which a whole life is not too long.—We are in a world where all our expectations are never satisfied; where we frequently meet with events contrary to our wishes; where these wishes are never accomplished soon enough for us, and where every hour may be productive of grievous disasters. After the example of *St. Paul*, then, let us bring *our body and will into subjection*, and let us put on the whole armour necessary to support such conflicts. Parents, inculcate early in your children this virtue by the most suitable methods, that you may spare them hereafter many chagrins; and what is of more consequence, guard them against many sins. From the same motives let us all be inclined to practise whatever may help to strengthen it in us. Let us learn to deny ourselves occasionally, or at least postpone for a time certain pleasures although innocent. Let us learn when we are agitated to fix our attention on other objects, and *keep our mouth as it were with a bridle*—and all this that the will may have more and more influence over our sensibility, and that the latter may not hurry away affec-

tions brought under the yoke of religion. Then we need not doubt that this our attention to little things will contribute much to render us *faithful* in great ones; that by cultivating carefully and steadily this excellent fruit of the spirit *patience*, we may go from strength to strength, we may be able by degrees (the fervent prayers we address at the same time to God being heard) we may be able to drink the bitterest cup should he think it proper for us, if not with as much resignation as our divine Master and perfect model, at least in adopting heartily his language—*Now is my soul troubled, and what shall I say? Father, save me from this hour, but for this cause came I unto this hour—Father, glorify thy name, not what I will but what thou wilt!*'

The remarks on Zeal, and especially on its errors and abuses, are not less judicious than those on Patience: but for these we must refer to the volume. Indeed, we have been obliged to pass over several sermons, on which we had made notes during perusal, because our space will not admit of farther enlargement: nor is it necessary to the appreciation of the merit of Dr. G. as a preacher.—The volume is not very correctly printed: but the author has been extremely attentive in acknowleging the hints and ideas borrowed from other writers. The temper of his mind appears to be well regulated; and his liberal and candid sentiments, especially on the mode of prosecuting religious controversies, are highly creditable.

ART. VIII. *Facts and Observations relative to Sheep, Wool, Ploughs, and Oxen:* In which the Importance of improving the short-woolled Breeds by a Mixture of the Merino Blood is deduced from actual Practice. Together with some Remarks on the Advantages which have been derived from the Use of Salt. By John Lord Somerville. 8vo. pp. 137. 4s. sewed. Miller. 1803.

NOBLEMEN and Gentlemen of property derive, from their education, their rank, and their opulence, the means of very important and extensive utility; and they never reflect more true dignity on their situation, than when they are sedulously employed in beneficial undertakings, and in displaying examples of active, patriotic virtue. That sacred code, which we profess to reverence as divine, and which we are so strenuous in defending against the slanders of Infidelity, represents those gifts, we will not say *of Fortune*, but *of Providence*, by which certain individuals obtain a supereminent station in Society, as improvable Talents, imposing on the occupiers the most solemn duties. It is happy for the individual, and for the community, whenever this obligation is felt; and if we cannot so far compliment the morals of the great, in present times, as to pronounce this to be generally the case, we have always

always a peculiar satisfaction in contemplating the characters of some among our nobles, who, instead of wasting life in indolent luxury or "riotous living," mark their existence by continual traits of public spirit, and labour to become the benefactors of their fellow-creatures. To be Great, and to be Great in vain, is a reflection which no mind truly noble can endure.

We need not ask Lord Somerville's approbation of the sentiment which we have just pronounced; he has been alive to its influence; and he is intitled to the veneration of his countrymen, for exertions directed to their immediate benefit. He appears in the work before us as a practical Philosopher in the most useful of occupations; and, like a true philosopher, he enforces his doctrine by experiments. His knowlege is the fruit of application and observation; and he is less attentive to the graces of diction, than to the production of Facts by which his statements are confirmed.

Sheep form the first subject of this lecture; and hence we learn that his Lordship disapproves of the *rage* which has prevailed for the large breed of sheep, and recommends a race formed by a mixture of the Merino blood with the Southdown or Ryeland. The great majority of the public are interested in this advice; for the excessively coarse and fat mutton, which has been lately brought to market, cannot be calculated for the general class of house-keepers. Grass and other sheep food is wasted by making the animal disgustingly fat; and if it can be shewn that it is as much for the interest of the farmer as for that of the public at large to effect a change in this system, we trust that it will be generally abandoned. The present work is partly written with this view:

'It is to be lamented, (says Lord S.,) that we are such slaves to size, and that the eye can hardly resist it. A medium is more desirable; but if extremes are to be admitted, without a doubt the small sheep, fine in grain, is a more marketable commodity. The rich will have it, because its quality is superior; in short, because it eats better; the poor man will find its joints more adapted to the strength of his purse; and the dearer meat is to be, the more this argument applies; for legs and shoulders of mutton cannot conveniently be cut, and retailed in pieces. There remained, then, but the manufacturer, the mechanic, and the middle class of housekeeper, to prefer coarse-grained meat; so we reasoned when we first sent this Ryeland mutton to market; but these were the very people who greedily bought it at a penny per pound advance in price, and that, too, in a manufacturing district. But we are told that sailors, colliers, and keelmen, are sure customers for these over fat joints; so they are, and long may they enjoy them! Fresh meat is fresh meat, to a man coming from sea, but if he stays long in harbour, and were once to break

pale,

pale, and get a taste of better mutton, perhaps it would be no easy matter to bring him back again. We are told, too, that coarse fat mutton is best for salting; mutton is not at all well suited to this purpose; beef and pork take salt better. If men are to be kept on salt meat, be it so; if they are to live on mutton, let that be good in quality. One of the first cutting-butchers in London has often been heard to say, that he could not afford to buy fat coarse-grained sheep; for that, besides the loss in spine fat, which he was obliged to cut from roasting joints, there was not lean enough to support the fat, which therefore roasted away; and that so long as meat bears a better price than tallow, so long he must deal in South-downs, and sheep of that description. We have said thus much, because false arguments are too often used to enforce adoption of heavy sheep, in districts ill suited to them.'

By the united testimony of experienced agriculturists, it is confirmed that more dependence is to be placed on the race of animals, than we may be at first aware; and that the Merino breed preserves its properties in different climates and situations. Lord S. makes long extracts from M. Lasteyrie's *Histoire de l'Introduction des Moutons à Laine fine d'Espagne, dans les divers Etats de l'Europe*, &c. (see the Appendix to our last Vol. p. 513.) in order to urge the liberal naturalization of this breed; and he adduces his own experience, with that of Dr. Parry, to prove the advantages which may be derived from an admixture of Merino blood with some of our native breeds. We are informed 'that Mr. Tollet, a member of the Bath Society, from a knowlege of its value, and an anxious desire to disseminate every where this celebrated breed, has been led into classical researches as to its origin. He thinks it may be traced from Asia Minor and Greece into Italy; from thence, probably into Spain. Columella, and other writers, call them "Tarentine sheep," from the city of Tarentum.'

The experiments made by Lord S. were made on a scale sufficiently large, and in such a diversity of situation as may almost be allowed to decide the point:

'The flock consists of 340 breeding ewes, and the whole produce, at two years old, is fatted off, with the exception of such draft ewes as may be sold for stores; consequently, the number of the sheep is from 1000 to 1200; a scale not of the largest, but still large enough with safety to warrant any inference that may be drawn. The lambs are dropt in the vale of Taunton, and continue in it during the first summer. The store flock is summered a short distance from thence, on the hills before mentioned, bordering on Exmoor Forest. The contrast of climate must be remarkable, because there is a difference in the time of harvest of a month: our feeding sheep are then grazed in the exposed but rich marsh of Bridgewater, long celebrated for its good beef and fat oxen; or finished in turnips and winter vetches in the vale. We had reason to fear, in either case, that the strength of keep

keep might open the pile, and give a coarseness to the wool, as well as to the grain of meat; but the event has destroyed such fears, insomuch that we had no scruple in sending some wether lambs to winter in the marsh, using the precaution to cott them during the severe winter months; and although this land had the character of being too strong, and of scouring lambs, even to the danger of losing them, we found the mixed breed able to endure it, and thrive surprisingly. Whether as an article of food for those, who are robust; or those, who are delicate, even at the early age of 18 months, when mutton is usually thought indifferent; it is nutritious and exquisite in flavour. There is a firmness in the spine fat; a richness and deep colour in the gravy; and a fine texture and tenderness in the grain, which must command customers, and ensure to this breed the good will of butchers, wherever they may be situated. There are two parties to be considered; the seller and the purchaser.'

As the quantity of good mutton and wool produceable per acre must govern the conduct of the farmer, the noble author points out the advantages of the small breed over the larger; and, in order to prevent all doubt respecting the specific object of his recommendation, he adds:

'The question having of late been repeatedly asked, What proportion of the Merino blood it would be advisable to bring into the South-down breed with advantage? my answer has been, One quarter, only, provided the outward semblance and character of the South-down is intended to be preserved; the Ryeland being a white-faced sheep, assimilates with the Merino more readily, and will bear one half, or even more.'

That animal is certainly a most valuable acquisition, which produces at once the finest wool and excellent flesh; and no defect in exterior beauty should prevent its becoming a favourite. Some improvement in the shape may be obtained: but, if the question lies simply between the eye and the pocket, the farmer will in time learn how to decide. Let him ponder on this statement:

'South-down and Merino ewes, of the half blood, at four pounds a fleece clean washed, and at three shillings a pound, will amount to twelve shillings each fleece, which, at seven and a half per acre for seven months, amount to four pounds ten shillings per acre for the pasture land, with turnips for winter keep. The store ewes of Ryeland and Merino half blood, at ten per acre for seven months, and turnips in proportion as above, at three pounds and a quarter each fleece, at three shillings and two-pence per pound, or ten shillings and three pence halfpenny a fleece, amounts to six pounds ten and five-pence per acre.'

Some important observations are subjoined on the use of salt. It has been known to have been infused or sprinkled on hay, when putting together in stacks, with good effect; and to have

have a power of recovering the virtue of flooded mouldy hay. Borrowing the practice of Spain, Lord Somerville recommends it in sheep feeding. To encourage its use in this country, on account of the high duty on it,

'A Gentleman who farms near Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire, "caused 12 lbs. of chalk to be kneaded in water, saturated with salt. This paste, being put in a trough, and dried in the oven, is placed in one of the racks, to prevent the sheep from soiling it; to this, when in the fold, they have constant access, and I believe they have received from it every benefit, that could be wished; they lick it constantly, and the lambs shew an uncommon partiality for it."

'When turnips in the early season are stocked with sheep, and the greens rank and strong, many die suddenly, more especially young two-tooth sheep. The disorder is a pent-up wind, occasioned by excess of fermentation in the stomach; here salted hay and salt are devoured with a greediness, that denotes their salutary effect. The autumn of 1801 was rainy and unfavourable, yet we did not lose one sheep in turnips, and probably never shall, whilst we persevere in the use of salt. In that of 1802 we had many hundred fat wethers, gales, and hog sheep in turnips, and lost about two during the first month the turnips were stocked; the chances were, that in any keep, and in any season, of such a flock more might have died.

'In strong pastures likewise, when seasons are wet, the rot often spreads destruction over whole tracts of country: here salt must be beneficial, and an object of national importance.'

If salt should be found to give that vigour and stimulus to the stomach of sheep which will prevent the rot, we should suppose that few shepherds would abstain from its use.

For the employment of Oxen in agriculture in preference to Horses, Lord S. has already shewn himself a strenuous advocate. He here pursues the subject, contending for 'the possibility of cultivating the greater part of our land by the very animals which we must breed as an article of food, and which do not consume a grain of the corn which they are the means of producing, to the exclusion of other animals, whose chief nourishment is corn, and whose flesh is perfectly useless.' Fearing lest the account of his own practice with oxen should not be sufficiently convincing, Lord S. subjoins the following calculation:

'How many millions of money have been expended in procuring corn by importation, within the last four years, and how cruelly thousands of our fellow subjects have suffered from the want of bread, need not here be urged, for the occurrence is too fresh in every memory; but we are bound to repeat what has before been advanced, and without contradiction; that taking the number of heavy cart-horses at 500,000, which probably comes far short of the actual number; and admitting 200,000, from local circumstances, to be useful, the remaining 300,000 totally superfluous: the latter consume

same at the rate of one peck of corn per day for nine months in the twelve, 63 bushels per annum, which nearly equals 36 bushels of wheat, equal to the average bread of seven persons during the whole year, whereby it cannot be denied that 300,000 cart-horses consume the bread-corn of two millions one hundred thousand persons; which, admitting the population to be ten million of persons, (Ireland not included,) is more than a fifth part of the whole, and a loss of more than ten weeks' consumption of the whole; and which cannot have cost much less than twenty millions of money.'

The remarks on the construction and working of Ploughs are judicious; and, though we cannot enter into a particular description of the improvements made in them by Lord S., and for which he has obtained a patent, we can assure our readers that their utility is abundantly manifested.

On the whole, this work does honour to Lord Somerville as a liberal and spirited agriculturist. He endeavours to promote the science by premiums, by instruction, by his practice as a cultivator, and by his activity as an author. We are so desirous of forwarding such truly meritorious intentions, that we have allotted a larger space to this publication than its size might seem to demand.

ART. IX. *War Elegies.* By Joseph Fawcett, Author of Civilized War, a Poem, and other Poems. 8vo. pp. 79. 3s. sewed. Johnson.

HAD these poems been published anonymously, we might have taken them up with an expectation of finding them adapted to the martial ardour of the day: but the name of Fawcett secured us from such a mistake. A greater abhorrence of war was never expressed by any human being, than by this writer in his former publication, first intitled, "The Art of War," and afterward (at our suggestion), "Civilized War*:" but, not satisfied with having given the most lively and affecting delineations of the general and extensive calamities attendant on national contests, Mr. Fawcett has endeavoured in the present Elegies to divide his large picture into parts, and to exhibit in distinct portraits and compartments the separate scenes and figures of which the horrid aggregate is composed. We have now, therefore, a reprobation of War in detail; or the indignation of a poet, possessed of great sensibility and of the most amiable morality, poured forth on each of its detached forms;—and since it is well known that pictures of individual distress touch the soul more powerfully than the best wrought descriptions

* See Rev. Vol. xviii. N. S. p. 258. and Vol. xxviii. p. 268.

of

of general misery, these compositions may be expected to make an impression on hearts which are not systematized to stone.

At the present moment, indeed, when, on the pure principle of self-defence, which the most correct morals must justify, we are called to convert "our plough-shares into swords, and our sickles into spears," it may seem unpatriotic to advert to the horrors which move in the train of War*: yet it may not be improper, even while the ambitious and malignant designs of the enemy force this evil on us, to advert to the complicated mischiefs which it entails on human life; in order that every valiant defender of his country may cherish the love of peace, while he fights for it and for its sister blessing *Liberty*; and may comfort himself amid the rigid discipline and bloody pursuits of war, by anticipating the happy hour in which they shall be exchanged for the unrestrained intercourse, the fearless avocations, and the sweet amities of life.

Mr. Fawcett's object is to condemn the *system of war*, as adopted by civilized nations. In the notes, he expresses himself on this topic with more energy, if possible, than in his poem.

'What a monster of moral mischief (says he) must War appear to every mind of the smallest reflection and feeling! At the conclusion of a campaign, we calculate the lives that have been lost: but who shall compute the hearts that have been hardened, and the characters that have been corrupted? We make correct returns of the killed and wounded: could we as accurately draw up lists of the morals slain and mutilated, how much would the horrour of the humane observer of this scourge of mankind be heightened!

'O ye cold, cabineted authors of this voluminous calamity, this universe of ill! to whatever heights ye be exalted, or however sanctified by the suffrage of Prejudice your sanguinary practices may be; I will dare to lift up my voice to tell you, that, not only all the blood you have authorized the sword to spill, but all the souls that have been ruined in the savage seminaries you have opened for them, shall hereafter be required at your hands!'

We wish that the most ambitious man in Europe could be stung to remorse by this apostrophe: but our hopes are not very sanguine.—Mr. F. consoles himself by prophetic visions of futurity, and anticipates a state of society established on different principles from those which prevail at present, even during what is now termed a period of Peace.

'In these days of fashionable despair of the final amendment of human manners, I am not ashamed to own myself of the number of those reputed enthusiasts, who look forward to fairer times. I am

* The date of this work, in the title, is 1801: but it has not long reached our hands.

free to confess, that my hopes, as well as wishes, point to a state of peace, far other than any which has yet borne the beautiful name; which has indeed been little more than inactive war; an armed, although a quiet scene; a season of calm, in a system of society containing all the materials of tempest and principles of storm; a motley picture, at variance with itself, of national civility and jealousy, rest and insecurity, amity and rivalship; of steel wiped from its slaughterous stain, but retaining its slaughterous shape; of arms, put off by their wearers only to be reposited in arsenals; of forts, whose thunder is hushed, but that still threaten in silence with frowning battlements; of fleets and armies ceasing from murderous action, but maintained in proud existence, and bearing the venerable name of ESTABLISHMENTS; and of garments, though no longer "rolled in blood," continuing to be worn, with undiminished ornament, as the gay badge of barbarous occupation.

'I contemplate, in my prospect of futurity, a scene of peace, that shall exhibit to the satisfied friend of his species, not merely inactive, but exploded arms; a state, in which swords shall be returned, not to the scabbard, but the anvil; a peace, not born of negotiation and formality, ushered with noisy proclamation and adorned with gaudy parade, but silently proceeding from attachment to human happiness, and abhorrence of human contention; a peace, whose security shall be the innocence of society, whose guarantee, the philanthropy of nations, and whose olive-branch, extended over the HEARTS of mankind, shall *realise* that eternity of its duration, which has hitherto been nothing more than an idle expletive in the language of treaties.

'To contribute my mite to the ultimate attainment of this temper in human life, is the design of what I have before, and what I now offer to the attention of the public, on this subject.'

Most readers will apply the term enthusiastic to the author's views: but, as his enthusiasm is of a truly amiable kind, it is intitled to indulgence; especially since it is not unsanctioned by certain expressions of sacred prophecy.

The subjects of these Elegies are; The Battle, The Siege, Famine, Victory, The Mourning Maid, The Despairing Mother, Winter, The Recruit, The Impress, The Soldier's School, and The Penitent. By this enumeration, we were immediately prepared for a recurrence of many of the same thoughts and reflections which abounded in the poem on "Civilized War." Indeed, the first two pieces, the *Battle* and the *Siege*, in as much as they contain general descriptions, partake of the nature of the large poem, though they are conveyed in a different measure.

In giving a specimen of these Elegies, we quote the fifth, as being best accommodated to our narrow limits:

'THE

THE MOURNING MAID.

"Say, faded maid, why thy pale beauty wears,
In gloomy contrast, that dark suit of woe;
And why, with lavish gush, thy frequent tears
That little painted semblance thus o'erflow.

"Why rov'st thou sad beneath the willows' shade,
Whose down-cast boughs these lonely waters lave?
And why, as oft thy wand'ring foot is staid,
View'st thou, with wishful gaze, the fatal wave?

"Lo, 'tis the blooming morning of the year!
Lo, blander suns light up the glorious sky!
O'er all the glowing fields the flowers appear,
And new-clad woods swell beauteous on the eye!

"'Tis Nature's revel! all her works rejoice!
Gay laughs the landscape, all that lives is gay!
Light bound the flocks! the birds exalt their voice!
And all things shout, and bless delightful May!

"Join the gay jubilee of Earth and skies,
And let thine heart to rapture tune its strings!
Why from thy lips thus flow dissentient sighs,
While all around exulting Nature sings?

"Go, talk of spring to other ears than mine!
Insulted sorrow loathes the wanton scene:
'Tis nought to me, that suns more kindly shine,
That skies are azure, or that fields are green.

"Alike to me, if lowers or smiles the day;
If snows deface or flowers adorn the plains:
My frozen breast admits no genial ray;
There winter, everlasting winter reigns!

"Yon ample roof of Heaven, thou deem'st so fair,
Where thy pleas'd eyes such gladsome splendours see,
Though the broad arch its proudest glories wear,
Is but a cavern's darksome vault to me!

"No use have I for all this flood of light:
No more for me the lamps of day arise:
The only form, that now could charm my sight,
No sun can show to these abandon'd eyes!

"This throbbing heart, of softest feelings made,
A heart that answer'd all its feelings found:
Nor Want's cold blast our blissful loves forbade,
Nor adverse kindred on our union frown'd:

"But 'tis an iron world: 'tis wild to look
For gentler hours of love and gladness here:
This rocking scene thro' all its frame is shook,
And Peace inhabits in some other sphere.

"The

"The friends of strife have bid me smile no more;
They rais'd the storm, that overcast my day;
War's odious garb my luckless lover wore;
The trumpet rent him from these arms away.

"Each battle's course with pausing breath I read:
Scarce could mine eyes the dread perusal dare:
But when I clos'd the list of them that bled,
How leapt my heart, when Edward was not there!

"Not long it leapt; the destin'd stroke was dealt:
The victim's blood soon stain'd the fatal steel:
Deep in my soul the sword's keen edge I felt,
And took the wound, nor Art nor Time shall heal!

"Oh! curst be he, amid the barb'rous strife,
Whose impious weapon laid an angel low!
But doubly curst the foes to love and life,
Who bad the crimson sea begin to flow!

"On this small tablet smiles his beauty still!
In his mild eye what gentle lustres play!
Oh! what was he, who such a form could kill!
A form, to charm a Fury's rage away?

"Then mock not me with this gay-painted ball,
That looks for Pleasure's smiling mansion made:
Ah, what though Nature kindly shine on all!
Man stands between, and flings on all his shade!

"O'er MY dimm'd scene a TOTAL gloom is thrown!
Where not the feeblest rays of comfort shine!
A night, in which no cheering star is known,
A night, that hopes no joyful morn, is mine!

"This is the cause my pallid figure wears,
In gloomy contrast, this dark suit of woe;
Hence, hence it is, my frequent-gushing tears
This little pictur'd image thus o'erflow!

"For this I rove beneath these willows' shade,
Whose boughs dejected these lone waters lave:
For this, as oft my wand'ring foot is staid,
I view, with wishful gaze, the fatal wave."

Singular expressions, and some feeble lines, have occurred to our notice in perusing this little volume. 'Garden-orb,' for the world; 'rounded caves,' for firelocks; 'a wounded street;' 'snapping of sleep;' &c. are unauthorized novelties. The line,

'Figuring the raven vest that robes the sky.'

is too long by one syllable.

'A tree's *prostrated* trunk his seat supplied,'

cannot be verse, unless the second syllable of prostrated be made long, contrary to usage.

Such lines as,

'And woo the lids *of all* that lives to close,'

'No scape is mine! *I'm* lash'd enough within.'

'I felt how much more *due* to me the doom!'

'And that it yields my aged frame no good.';

are very tame and feeble, and not worthy of admission into elegiac stanzas.

Though, however, we cannot pronounce these supplemental essays equal in poetic merit to the author's blank-verse composition, they contain nervous and pathetic descriptions, which alike display the vigour of his mind and the feelings of his heart. His own satisfaction is thus expressed at the conclusion of his preface:

'Having thus discharged all the power, which the Author of my nature has been pleased to bestow upon me, at this great enemy of mankind, I have at once procured myself some relief from a load of indignation, that has long oppressed my soul, and the pride to reflect, that my intention, if not my execution, entitles me to the gratitude of the public, whether I be destined to reap it or not.'

As we have already mentioned, this publication appeared at the commencement of the late short-lived peace: but that termination of hostilities gave Mr. F. little pleasure, because it was far from effecting the consummation of his wishes; which look forwards to that (we fear, *distant*) period, when men shall not only abstain from fighting, but "even cease to *learn war any more.*" As a preliminary to this event, so ardently desired by the humane philosopher, pride and passion must be brought into the most complete subjection to enlightened reason; and men must have learnt to renounce the love of wealth, pre-eminence, and dominion.

ART. X. *Animal Biography*; or, Anecdotes of the Lives, Manners, and Economy, of the Animal Creation, arranged according to the System of Linnæus. By the Rev. W. Bingley, A.B. Fellow of the Linnean Society, and late of St. Peter's College, Cambridge. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

WITHOUT the aid of characteristic divisions, we can make no regular advances in the study of nature, nor transmit any information relative to that study with precision to posterity; and therefore it would be highly unreasonable to detract from the merits of those eminent zoologists, who have applied their time and talents chiefly to points of technical arrangement. It behoves us, however, to recollect that the most complete

plete and brilliant nomenclature, if not applied to the discovery of truth and the purposes of life, can be little better than *sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.* As well might the carpenter expect to form a table by merely purchasing the requisite materials and instruments, as the naturalist hope to arrive at interesting or important conclusions by the adjustment of names and definitions. A catalogue of the numerous living beings which "encompass our paths" derives its value from its subserviency to our inquiries into the various modes of animal existence; whence we may contemplate many striking displays of supreme intelligence and goodness, and deduce lessons fraught with utility to individuals or to society.

In these leading points of view, and as filling up a chasm in English literature, the present collection has urgent claims on our favourable notice. The labour of nearly two years, and the careful inspection of almost a thousand volumes, are solid proofs of the compiler's diligence and perseverance. As he has selected his materials with judgment, and has exhibited them in a connected series, we would recommend his volumes to those professed naturalists who may be desirous of revising, in an easy and methodical manner, some of the most interesting results of their former investigations;—to the student, who is now enabled, with no great expenditure of either time or trouble, to trace at once the outline of a great department of the Linnéan system, and to treasure in his mind many of the curious facts connected with the history of the animal creation;—to the philosopher, who loves to speculate on the constitution and conduct of organized beings;—and even to him who, without having it in his power to pursue any fixed plan of study, can occasionally devote an hour or two to rational recreation. From the perusal of these anecdotes, the young of both sexes may reap much entertainment and instruction; without encountering a single passage which can alarm modesty, or wound those pure and simple feelings which constitute the ornament and the comfort of our condition. The more irksome details of classification and description, which may always be obtained from systematical publications, have been purposely suppressed; and the sameness of the general plan is sometimes agreeably relieved by apposite reflections or poetical quotations.

To a preliminary discourse on the study of nature, replete with sensible and pious observations, the reverend author has subjoined a concise view of the animal kingdom; and to the accounts of the several species detailed in the course of the work, he has usually prefixed some remarks on the genus, or family. The first and second volumes comprize the qua-

drupeds and birds; and the third, the amphibious tribes, fishes, insects, and worms.

We can scarcely expect that a first attempt, of such a nature, should exhaust the subject. In fact, much remains, and will long remain, to be discovered and registered; and writers may arise who, from improved and enlarged statements, may illustrate a beautiful continuity of gradation in the scale of intellect, from the highest cultivated faculties of man to the last traces of locomotive power. Meanwhile, it is desirable to gather into one body such scattered and disjointed facts, as may ultimately contribute to extended views of nature. This task Mr. Bingley has commenced, and has thus performed a lasting service to the public. They who have particularly directed their thoughts to the habits and propensities of the inferior animals may, perhaps, require a still more complete enumeration of facts; and no doubt the work might have been extended to double its present size: but much has been prudently passed unnoticed, because generally known, and more has been neglected, because it lay within the region of fable. We even wish that Mr. B. had culled with a still more sparing hand from such writers as Pontoppidan, Stedman, and Vaillant: yet it is seldom that he records, at least in unqualified language, any striking particulars which are not duly attested. The works of Rondelet, Artedi, and Bloch, with Lacépède's yet unfinished ichthyology, might have furnished a wider range of information concerning the history of fishes: but the notices of the quadrupeds and insects are pleasingly diversified, and satisfactory.

Having premised thus much with regard to the general merits of this valuable compilation, we shall briefly hint at a few of those mistatements, or inaccuracies, from which no work of any length can plead exemption.

Linné has certainly ascribed the *clamor horrendus* to the Sloth, because naturalists and travellers, who copied from one another, had done so before him: but it is now ascertained that the cry of this animal is more plaintive than horrible. It is likewise a singular circumstance, that this reputed lump of insensibility should be capable of shedding tears.

It appears to us a hasty assertion, that Mastiffs are *peculiar* to this country; and we cannot affirm, with Mr. B., that the *Gymnotus Electricus* is confined to Surinam. If we rightly recollect, it was first discovered by Richer, in Cayenne, and has been found at the mouths of some of the African rivers.

We have had occasion more than once to controvert the common opinion, that both jaws of the Crocodile are move-

able; and, as the suffrages of recent and respectable travellers are in favour of Grew, who first exposed the prevailing notion, we were surprized to find it re-echoed in the present publication.—Besides the fossil Crocodile described by Linkius, Mr. B. might have noticed the more perfect specimens from St. Peter's Mountain, near Maestricht.

If we descend to verbal criticisms, we have to remark that the style of these volumes is, for the most part, plain and easy. The general title, however, is exceptionable, because redundant, and yet not sufficiently descriptive of the author's subject. *Animal Biography* is equivalent to *an account of the lives of living creatures;* and, doubtless, he would be a sturdy naturalist, who should undertake a biography of sticks and stones. —Such collocation as, *they frequently hold out it*, and, *the latter it rises into the air with*, is peculiarly awkward. *Surprising agile, the gluttony and filthy habits of these animals* SEEMS, *the upper parts of the plumage* IS, &c. are obvious inaccuracies. *A state of torpidity* is a favourite expression with Mr. B. and some of his contemporaries: when analyzed, however, its redundancy is as manifest as that of *animal biography:—torpidity*, of itself, denotes a state of torpor. *Preventative* is unauthorized by correct writers, and is, moreover, at variance with analogy. *Deceptious* and *immesh* are rather affected neologisms. The first syllable is superfluous in *depredatory;* to *subside* is used only in a neuter sense; and though, in conversation, it has become fashionable to use *lay* for *lie*, we should be glad to see this ungrammatical innovation *laid aside.*

It now only remains that we treat our readers with a few short extracts.

A ludicrous incident is related concerning the Oran Otan:

'Pere Carbasson brought up an Oran Otan, which became so fond of him, that wherever he went it always seemed desirous of accompanying him: whenever, therefore, he had to perform the service of his church, he was always under the necessity of shutting it up in a room. Once, however, the animal escaped, and followed the father to the church, where, silently mounting on the sounding board above the pulpit, he lay perfectly still till the sermon commenced. He then crept to the edge, and overlooking the preacher, imitated all his gestures in so grotesque a manner that the whole congregation *was* unavoidably *caused* to laugh. The father, surprized and confounded at this ill-timed levity, severely reproved his audience for their inattention. The reproof failed in its effect, the congregation still laughed, and the preacher, in the warmth of his zeal, redoubled his vociferations and his actions: these the Ape imitated so exactly, that the congregation could no longer retain themselves, but burst out into a loud and continued laughter. A friend of the preacher at length stepped up to him, and pointed out the cause of

this improper conduct; and such was the arch demeanour of his animal, that it was with the utmost difficulty he could command the muscles of his countenance, and keep himself apparently serious, while he ordered the servants of the church to take him away.'

'A most extraordinary instance of memory in a Mastiff is related by M. D'Obsonville. This dog, which he had brought up in India, from two months old, accompanied himself and a friend from Pondicherry to Benglour, a distance of more than three hundred leagues.' "Our journey," he continues, "occupied near three weeks, and we had to traverse plains and mountains, and to ford rivers, and go along several bye-paths. The animal, which had certainly never been in that country before, lost us at Benglour, and immediately returned to Pondicherry. He went directly to the house of M. Beylier, then commandant of artillery, my friend, and with whom I had generally lived. Now the difficulty is, not so much to know how the dog subsisted on the road, for he was very strong, and able to procure himself food; but how he should so well have found his way, after an interval of more than a month! This was an effort of memory greatly superior to that which the human race is capable of exerting."

Among other instances of the affection manifested by the canine species, we expected to have met with an extraordinary case which occurred at Paris in 1660. Sonnini, in his own masterly manner, has published the particulars, to which we cannot render justice in quoting from memory. Suffice it to say, that this faithful and kind-hearted animal remained for several years by his master's grave, braving the rigours of winter, and supported by the pity of the neighbouring inhabitants.

Under the article *common Bear*, we find there curious notices:

'When a Kamtschadale espies a Bear, he endeavours to conciliate his friendship at a distance, accompanying his gestures by courteous words. They are, indeed, so familiar, that the women and girls, when they are gathering roots and herbs, or turf for fuel, in the midst of a whole drove of Bears, are never disturbed by them in their employment; and if any one of these animals comes up to them, it is only to eat something out of their hands. They have never been known to attack a man, except when roused on a sudden from their sleep; and they very seldom turn upon the marksman, whether they be hit or not.

'This humane character of the Kamtschadale Bear, who differs so remarkably from his brethren in most other countries, procures him, however, no exemption from the persecutions of mankind. His great utility is a sufficient instigation to self-interested man, to declare eternal war against him. Armed with a spear, or club, the Kamtschadale goes in quest of the peaceful animal in his calm retreat, who, meditating no attack, and intent only on defence, gravely takes

takes the faggots, which his more brutal persecutor brings him, and with them, himself, chokes up the entrance to his den. The mouth of the cavern being thus closed, the hunter bores a hole through the top, and spears, with the greatest security, his defenceless foe *.

'They are sometimes cruel enough to lay a board driven full of iron hooks, in the Bear's track, and place near it something heavy, that the animal must throw down as he passes. Alarmed by this, he runs upon the board with greater force than he would otherwise do; and, finding one of his paws wounded, and fixed by the hooks, he endeavours to free himself, by striking it forcibly with the other. Both the paws of the poor animal being now fixed, bellowing with pain, he rises on his hind feet, which immediately brings the board before his eyes, and so perplexes him, that he throws himself down in fury, and his violent struggles at length destroy him.

'It would be difficult to name a species of animals, if we except the Sheep, so variously serviceable to man, as the Bear, after his death, is to the Kamtschadales. Of the skin, they make beds, covertures, caps, and gloves, and collars for their sledge-dogs. Those who go upon the ice for the capture of marine animals, make their shoe-soals of the same, which never slip upon the ice. The fat of the Bear is held in great estimation by all the inhabitants of Kamtschatka, as a very savory and wholesome nourishment; and, when rendered fluid, by melting, it supplies the place of oil. The flesh is esteemed a great delicacy. The intestines, when cleansed, and properly scraped, are worn by the *fair sex*, as masks to preserve their faces from the effects of the sun-beams; which here, being reflected from the snow, are generally found to blacken the skin; but, by this means, the Kamtschadale ladies preserve a fine complexion. The Russians of Kamtschatka make window-panes of these intestines, which are as clear and transparent as those made of Muscovy-glass. Of the shoulder-blades, are made sickles for cutting grass, and the heads and haunches are hung up by these people, as ornaments or trophies, on the trees about their dwellings.

'The Kamtschadales also acknowledge infinite obligations to the Bears, for the little progress they have hitherto made, as well in the sciences, as even in the *polite arts*. They confess themselves indebted to these animals for all their knowledge in physic and surgery: by observing what herbs they have applied to the wounds they have received, and what methods they have pursued, when they were languid, and out of order, this people have acquired a knowledge of most of those simples, which they now have recourse to, either as external or internal applications. But the most singular circum-

'* A method nearly similar is practised by some of the North American Indians, with the Bears of that country. They block up the dens with logs of wood, and then break in at the top, and either kill the animal with a spear or gun; or else put a snare about his neck, and, drawing his head close to the hole, dispatch him with their hatchets. —Hearne, 370.'

stance of all is, that they admit the Bears to be their *dancing-masters*; and, in what they call the *Bear-dance*, every gesture and attitude of that animal is so faithfully exhibited, as to afford sufficient indications of this. They represent its sluggish and stupid gait; its different feelings and situations, as the young ones about their dam, the amorous sports of the male with the female, and its agitation, when pursued.'

Mr. B. animadverts with just and pointed severity on the barbarous practice of cock-fighting; and on the cruelties which are too often exercised on that useful and generous animal, the horse. He ought, however, to distinguish between common posting and the abuse of that mode of travelling. Of the Ass, he says;

'The manner in which the Asses descend the precipices of the Alps, or the Andes, is truly extraordinary, and deserves to be recorded. In the passes of these mountains there are often on one side steep eminences, and on the other frightful abysses; and, as these generally follow the direction of the mountain, the road, instead of lying on a level, forms at every little distance steep declivities of several hundred yards downwards. These can only be descended by Asses; and the animals themselves seem sensible of the danger, by the caution that they use. When they come to the edge of one of the descents, they stop of themselves, without being checked by the rider; and, if he inadvertently attempts to spur them on, they continue immoveable. They seem all this time ruminating on the danger that lies before them, and preparing themselves for the encounter. They not only attentively view the road, but tremble and snort at the danger. Having prepared for their descent, they place their fore feet in a posture as if they were stopping themselves; they then also put their hinder feet together, but a little forward, as if they were about to lie down. In this attitude, having taken a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. In the mean time all that the rider has to do is to keep himself fast on the saddle, without checking the rein, for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the Ass, in which case they must both unavoidably perish. But their address in this rapid descent is truly wonderful; for, in their swiftest motion, when they seem to have lost all government of themselves, they follow exactly the different windings of the road, as if they had previously settled in their minds the route they were to follow, and taken every precaution for their safety. In this journey, the natives, who are placed along the sides of the mountains, and hold by the roots of the trees, animate the beasts with shouts, and encourage them to perseverance. Some Asses, after being long used to these journies, acquire a kind of reputation for their safety and skill; and their value rises in proportion to their fame.'

The extreme virulence of the poison of the Rattle-snake is exemplified by this anecdote:

'We are told by an intelligent American writer, that a farmer was one day mowing with his negroes, when he by chance trod on a Rattle-snake, that immediately turned upon him, and bit his boot. At night,

night, when he went to bed, he was attacked with a sickness; he swelled, and before a physician could be called in he died. All his neighbours were surprised at his sudden death, but the corpse was interred without examination. A few days after one of the sons put on his father's boots, and at night when he pulled them off he was seized with the same symptoms, and died on the following morning. The doctor arrived, but, unable to divine the cause of so singular a disorder, seriously pronounced both the father and the son to have been bewitched. At the sale of the effects a neighbour purchased the boots, and on putting them on experienced the like dreadful symptoms with the father and son: a skilful physician, however, being sent for, who had heard of the preceding affair, suspected the cause, and, by applying proper remedies, recovered his patient. The fatal boots were now carefully examined, and the two fangs of the snake were discovered to have been left in the leather with the poison-bladders adhering to them.—They had penetrated entirely through, and both the father and son had imperceptibly scratched themselves with their points in pulling off the boots.'

Speaking of the *Bombardier* (*Carabus Crepitans*, Lin.),

'This insect,' says Mr. B. 'keeps itself concealed among stones, and seems to make little use of its wings. When it moves it is by a sort of jump; and when it is touched we are surprized with a noise resembling the discharge of a musket in miniature, during which a blue smoke may be perceived to proceed from its extremity. The insect may at any time be made to play off its artillery by scratching its back with a needle. If we may believe Rolander, who first made these observations, it can give twenty discharges successively. A bladder, placed near its posterior extremity, is the arsenal that contains its store. This is its chief defence against its enemies, and the vapour or liquid that proceeds from it is of so pungent a nature that if it happens to be discharged into the eyes it makes them smart as though brandy had been thrown into them. Its principal enemy is another insect of the same genus, but three or four times its size. When pursued and fatigued, the Bombardier has recourse to this stratagem. It lies down in the path of its enemy, who advances with open mouth and claws to seize it; but on the discharge of the artillery this suddenly draws back, and remains for a while confused, during which the Bombardier conceals himself in some neighbouring crevice! but if not lucky enough to find one, the other returns to the attack, takes the insect by the head, and tears it off.'

M. Bechstein's remarks on Gossamer are well worthy of attention:

"Some naturalists (says this gentleman) have considered this phenomenon as the evaporation of plants condensed during the cool days of harvest by the air, and converted into threads like those which can be drawn from resinous juices; others, as the production of a kind of spider, on account of its similarity to the threads of common spiders; and M. Pereboom has discovered a kind of beetle, furnished with a vesicle on its back, from the hinder parts of which,

on

on both sides, proceed two threads that extend over the extremity of the body, and end in a double thread sometimes ten or more inches in length, which thread he supposes to form the Gossamer.

"Having made for many years the closest observations on this phenomenon, I am of opinion that it is caused by a species of field spider, so small and active as to be imperceptible, unless the observer possesses a very acute sight. This spider, if it has no name already, I propose to call the Gossamer Spider, *Aranea Obtextrix.* It is about the size of the head of a small pin. Its head is somewhat long, and has in the fore-part eight grey eyes, placed in a circular form. The body is of a shining dark brown colour, with the abdomen shaped like an egg. The legs are moderately yellowish.

"These spiders first appear in the beginning of October, in woods, gardens, and meadows, where their eggs are hatched in safety: thence they spread themselves over whole districts, and during the rest of October, and till the middle of November, may be found in dry fields throughout Europe. Extensive tracts of land are sometimes seen swarming with them. In the beginning of October, when but very few are hatched, a few single threads of their webs, extending from twig to twig, are seen only in the sunshine; about the middle of the month their threads are more perceptible; and towards the end, if a person stands in such a position as to see the sun-beams play on the slender threads, hedges, meadows, corn-fields, stubble-land, and even whole districts, appear covered as with a sort of fine white gauze.

"The Gossamer Spider does not weave a web, but only extends its threads from one place to another. These are so delicate, that a single thread cannot be seen unless the sun shines on it. One of them, to be visible at other times, must be composed of at least six common threads twisted together. In serene calm days these spiders work with great diligence, especially after the disappearance of the morning fogs. Between twelve and two, however, their industry excites the greatest admiration. A person with a pretty quick eye, or by the help of a glass, may sometimes perceive among the barley-stubble such a multitude of these insects extending their threads, that the fields appear as if covered with swarms of gnats.

"Several of the single threads become twisted together by the gentlest breath of wind, and form perceptible threads, which, being broken by stronger winds, unite into thick threads, or even into balls, and float through the atmosphere. These are then called, in Germany, the *flying summer*, because the summer seems to fly away at the same time. The spiders are conveyed in them: but it is not uncommon to find spiders of other species in them, which have been entangled and dragged away; and even the webs of other spiders, and the dried husks of insects that have been caught in them, are often found in the Gossamer.

"The Gossamer Spiders appear in swarms only during the harvest, but single spiders are to be found the whole summer through."

We had marked many more passages for insertion: but we must not extend this article beyond ordinary limits; and, if our

our readers conceive the same opinion of the work which we entertain, they will not rest satisfied with a partial knowlege of its contents.

Art. XI. *Lectures on the Elements of Chemistry*, delivered in the University of Edinburgh; by the late Joseph Black, M.D., Professor of Chemistry in that University, &c. &c. Now published from his Manuscripts, by John Robison, L.L.D., Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

In bringing forwards the present work, Dr. Robison has performed an acceptable service to the world, and an agreeable and honourable duty to the memory of an illustrious friend, whose good opinion and confidence he possessed in a high degree. To do justice to his reputation as a discoverer, to make known the amiable qualities of his mind, and to give a faithful transcript of those lectures which so much contributed to the advancement of chemical science, are the laudable views by which the editor was actuated in preparing these volumes for the press. We venerate the undertaking; and we feel much satisfaction in reflecting that the character and labours of one of the most distinguished, and at the same time one of the most modest and unassuming philosophers of the last century, are now laid before the public in a manner which is equally creditable to his memory, and to the feelings, industry, and learning of the editor.

Dr. Black's publications were very few in number, and were always reluctantly given to the world; it therefore became a duty incumbent on his friends, to devote (as they have now done) the manuscripts which came under their inspection, after his decease, to the service of the community. The present volumes may be considered as a valuable acquisition to the chemical philosopher. They contain, in common with other comprehensive treatises, the various facts which constitute the elements of the science; and they furnish us likewise with an interesting view of the author's important discoveries, in his own simple and unaffected language. They moreover afford a memorable example of candour in the relinquishment of favourite and long established opinions, and exhibit throughout an useful lesson of steady adherence to accurate induction in the pursuit of philosophical inquiries. At the same time, if objections should be found to offer themselves to these lectures as a general system of modern chemistry, they may fairly be referred to the circumstances under which they were delivered; for it could scarcely be expected that, at an advanced period of

life, and under the disadvantages of a delicate constitution, Dr. Black could completely accommodate his lectures to the revolution which has of late years taken place in the science; nor that he could entirely divest them of their connection with the doctrines which formerly prevailed.

A preface of considerable length is occupied in a sketch of the life and scientific labours of Dr. Black; and from this paper our readers will no doubt be gratified in being presented with some abstracts.

Dr. Jos. Black was born in France, on the banks of the Garonne, in the year 1728. His father was a native of Ireland, though of a Scotch family, and was settled some years in the wine trade at Bourdeaux, where he was favoured with the particular intimacy of the illustrious Montesquieu. Dr. B. was sent to Belfast for his education, when twelve years of age; and, after the ordinary instruction of a grammar school, he commenced, in the year 1746, his academical education at Glasgow: where he was the favourite pupil of the professor of Natural Philosophy, Dr. Robert Dick, and the intimate companion of his son and successor. At the time of Dr. B.'s choice of medicine for his profession, the celebrated Cullen had just entered on his career at Glasgow; and, as it was his delight to encourage and assist the efforts of his pupils, he was not long in establishing a mutual friendship and confidence with the subject of this memoir. A short passage will evince with what ardour and constancy Dr. B. at this time pursued his improvements in literature and science:

'Our young philosopher,' says the editor, 'had laid down a very comprehensive and serious plan for the conduct of his studies. This appears by a number of note-books found among his papers. There are some in which he seems to have inserted every thing as it took his fancy, in medicine, chemistry, jurisprudence, or matters of taste; and I find others into which he has transferred the same things, but has distributed them according to their scientific connections. In short, he has kept a journal and ledger of his studies, and has posted his books like a merchant. I have looked over these memorandums with some care, and have there seen the first germs of those discoveries which have at last produced such a complete revolution in chemical science. What particularly struck me, was the steadiness with which he advanced in any path of knowledge,—*nulla retrorsum.* Things are inserted for the first time, from some present impression of their singularity or importance, but without any allusion to their connections. When a thing of the same kind is mentioned again, there is generally a reference back to its fellow; and thus the most insulated facts often acquired a connection which gave them scientific importance.'

Dr. Black went to Edinburgh, in order to finish his medical studies, in 1750, or 1751; and he graduated at Glasgow in the year

year 1754. The subject of his thesis was *De Acido à cibis orto, et de Magneſiâ*; and it contained the foundation of his celebrated discoveries relating to carbonic acid gas, which were afterward more fully developed in his essay on Magnesia and Quicklime. When he took his degree in medicine, he sent some copies of his essay to his father in Bourdeaux; and one was given by the old gentleman to his friend, the President Montesquieu: who after a few days called on Mr. Black, and said to him, with a sagacity for which that great man was celebrated, "Mr. Black, my very good friend, I rejoice with you; your son will be the honour of your name, and of your family."

Soon after his graduation, he was appointed professor of Anatomy, and lecturer on Chemistry, in his Alma mater: but, as he did not consider himself so well qualified to be useful in the former branch of medical study, he was permitted to exchange classes with the professor of medicine. He now read lectures on the Institutions of Medicine: but, though they gave satisfaction by their perspicuity and simplicity, and by the cautious moderation of the general doctrines which they inculcated, it did not appear that they satisfied the author, since there are no remains of them to be found among his papers, and he would never encourage conversation on topics connected with them. Between the years 1759 and 1763, Dr. Black brought to maturity those speculations on latent heat, or "the combination of heat or fire with tangible matter," which form so important an epoch in modern chemistry. After these were established by accurate experiments, an account of the whole investigation, with the doctrine founded on it, was read on April 23d, 1762, to a literary society, consisting of the members of the university, and several gentlemen of the city who had a relish for philosophy and literature. In the proofs and illustrations of this doctrine, Dr. Black derived very important assistance from the celebrated Mr. Watt, of Birmingham, who was one of his most zealous pupils, and soon became his most esteemed friend.

Some time previously to his making this communication, Dr. Black gave to the same society a series of experiments on the Thermometer; in order to prove that equal additions or abstractions of heat produced equal variations of bulk in the liquor of the Thermometers employed.

'About this period,' says the editor, 'Dr. Black was in high reputation as a professor, and a favourite physician of the large and active city of Glasgow. Indeed his sweetness of manner, which the dullest eye must have perceived to be free from all studious endeavour to please, and the evident concern which he took in the cases under his care, could not but make him a most welcome visitor in every family. His countenance,

countenance, at that time of life, was equally engaging as his manners were attractive, so that I do not wonder that, in the general popularity of his character, he was in particular a favourite with the ladies. I could not but remark that they regard themselves as honoured by the attentions of Dr. Black; for these were not indiscriminately bestowed, but exclusively paid to those who evinced a superiority in mental accomplishments, or propriety of demeanour, and in grace and elegance of manners.'

In the year 1766, on the translation of Dr. Cullen from the chemical to the medical chair of the University of Edinburgh, Dr. Black succeeded him in the former; and from that time, his great attention was to render his lectures adapted to the improvement of his pupils.

Chemistry now began to occupy an important place in natural science; and philosophers, in various parts of Europe, were assiduously occupied in its improvement. The illustrious discoveries of Scheele, Priestley, Cavendish, and Lavoisier, are well known; and if Dr. Black was not immediately concerned in them, it may at least be said, with the editor, that it was his two discoveries of 'fixed air, and combined heat, which gave the incitement, pointed out the road, and furnished the chief helps for pursuing it.' Unfortunately for Science, the delicate health of Dr. Black, and the constant attention necessary to avoid or to obviate the effects of any accidental irritations, prevented him from taking an active part in those researches to which his discoveries had led the way.

'The slightest cold, the most trifling approach to repletion, immediately affected his breast, occasioned feverishness, and, if continued for two or three days, brought on a spitting of blood. In this situation, nothing restored him to ease but relaxation of thought and gentle exercise. The sedentary life to which study confined him was manifestly hurtful; and he never allowed himself to indulge in any intense thinking, or puzzling research, without finding these complaints sensibly increased.

'Thus situated, Dr. Black was obliged to be contented as the spectator of the successful labours of others. So completely trammeled was he in this respect, that although his friends saw others disingenuous enough to avail themselves of the novelties announced by Dr. Black in his lectures, without acknowledging the obligation, and were thence afraid that their friend's claim of originality and priority might become doubtful; and although they repeatedly urged him to publish an account of what he had done, this remained unaccomplished to the last. Dr. Black often began the task; but was so nice in his notions of the manner in which it should be executed, that the pains he took in forming a plan of the work never failed to affect his health, and oblige him to desist.'

Dr. Black possessed every talent and accomplishment necessary to insure extensive medical practice: but the anxiety which he

he felt on account of his patients, and his strong sense of the importance of the charge intrusted to him, obliged him to limit his attendance to a few particular friends.

By many persons, Dr. B. was considered as parsimonious: but the editor represents his disposition as of a very different kind. He is acquainted with many examples of the exercise of his beneficence, and knows more instances than one in which this feeling has been indulged at a very serious risk to himself.—Amiable in private life, free from ostentation, but always disposed to give a cordial welcome to a few select friends, he lived in the highest estimation as well for erudition and elegance of taste, as for probity, equanimity, and ingenuousness. The chief companions of his hours of relaxation were Dr. Adam Smith, Mr. Hume, Dr. Ferguson, Mr. John Home, Dr. Alex. Carlyle, and one or two other gentlemen of talents and elegant accomplishments; all of whom were attached to him by their experience of his ingenuity, candour, and good taste, rather than by any similarity of studies or 'agreement of opinions.' There were others to whom his philosophical talents, and more particularly his chemical and geological knowlege, were powerful sources of attachment. These were Mr. Clerk of Elden, and his brother Sir George, Dr. Roebuck, and Dr. James Hutton.

Some time before his death, he was under the necessity of procuring an assistant in his lectures, and was at length obliged to give up his public duties altogether. As he advanced in years, his constitution became still more delicate and frail, 'so that every cold he caught occasioned some degree of spitting of blood. Yet he seemed to have this unfortunate disposition of body almost under command, so that he never allowed it to proceed far, or to occasion any distressing illness; and he thus spun his thread of life to the last fibre; and even this does not seem to have broken, but merely to have ended.' He died on the 26th of November 1799, in the 71st year of his age, 'without any convulsion, shock, or stupor, to announce or retard the approach of death;' and thus was his humane and modest wish gratified, of not being confined to a long-continued sick-bed, which might occasion a great degree of trouble and distress to attending friends.

In addition to his inaugural dissertation, and to the work on Magnesia and Quicklime printed soon afterward, the only papers which have appeared before the public, from the pen of this illustrious philosopher, were some observations on the ready freezing of water that has been boiled, published in the Philosophical Transactions of London for 1774, and an analysis

sis of the waters of some boiling springs in Iceland, which appeared in the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

We sincerely lament that, for a long series of years, Dr. Black was not able to be more than an inactive spectator of the improvements of modern chemistry; and though we agree with the editor, in principally accounting for this circumstance from the state of his health, which unfitted him for any extraordinary exertions, we cannot entirely set aside a great degree of habitual indolence, which made such exertions particularly oppressive; and which is very strongly exemplified in his neglecting to publish any account of his most important discovery of latent heat.

Though it is perfectly unnecessary, at the present period, to give any particular abstracts from Dr. Black's lectures, it may be proper to mention the general plan of them.—Their principal division is into the more general, and the more particular doctrines of chemistry. Under the first head, he gives an account of the more general or universal effects of heat, of the more general observations and discoveries relating to mixture, and of the chemical apparatus or instruments, and the manner of using them. Under the latter division, he considers the nature of the most remarkable bodies which chemists have studied; and these he divides into the six following classes: the salts; the earths; the inflammable substances; the metals; the waters; and the vegetable and animal substances.

At the end of each volume, the editor has subjoined several historical illustrative notes, which relate to particular passages of the lectures, and will be perused with interest. He enters into a long account of the claims which have been set up by De Luc and others for the original discovery of latent heat; and he feels, as every one must do on this occasion, an honest indignation at attempts which have been made to arrest from the rightful owner, one of the most valuable discoveries of modern times.

Before we conclude this article, it may be proper to observe, that the learned editor was chosen by Dr. Black's executors as the most proper person with whom they could entrust the publication of his lectures; and that, in the execution of this duty, (which he for some time hesitated to accept,) many difficulties arose from the very indistinct, and sometimes imperfect, state in which various parts of the manuscript were left.

Art.

Art. XII. *A Non-Military Journal*, or Observations made in Egypt, by an Officer upon the Staff of the British Army; describing the Country, its Inhabitants, their Manners and Customs; with Anecdotes illustrative of them. In a Series of Letters. Embellished with Engravings. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

The author of this lively Journal, who is said to be Major Doyle, seems to have thought that we had heard enough of blood and warfare from his brother journalists, who had traversed the same scenes. His letters are addressed to a lady (evidently his wife); and we are not disposed to scrutinize with much severity what is presented to us in so handsome and *dégagé* a manner:

'In sober seriousness, this *Trifle* (written by a Soldier who aims not at *literary fame*, who never had an idea of making it public, and intended it but for the eye of a partial friend,) will not, I hope and entreat, be judged with the severity of criticism. It has not even been altered from its original form: "*Tant pis*," perhaps you will say: however, you must do with it as the Author has done with his Correspondent—"*take it for better, for worse*."

We may give a specimen of the author's talent for description, from the letter which relates his first expedition on the Nile:

'I was faint, debilitated, and miserable, with a nasty fever hanging on me, which followed my wound, and oppressed my spirits dreadfully; but the sudden transition from barren hot sand, and every thing that proclaimed a desolate and melancholy country, into the cheerful verdant soil which either side the Nile presented to my feverish, but now all-devouring eye, gave such a fillip to exhausted and desponding nature, that, as if roused from a lethargy, inspirited and revived by the unexpected novelty of the scene, I involuntarily rose up in the boat, and felt a degree of strength for a long time quite unknown to me. Every minute added to the beauty of the scene, and to my strength; the whole river alive with wild-fowl, and our boats; continued and picturesque groups of men and women sporting upon the banks; while the buffaloes along-side refreshed themselves by bathing and rolling in the Nile, nothing but their heads appearing, which they ever and anon dipped to get rid of the busy fly; never did any creature seem to enjoy itself so much.

'Here, an ancient-looking mansion, well built of brick, whose owner, in all the pompous grandeur and absurdity of the East, sat in the shade encircled by his vassals, smoaking, and drinking coffee, meditating upon—*nothing*; surrounded by highly cultivated grounds and lovely gardens, watered by the incessant labour of immense bullocks.

'There, a village, which, though of mud huts, yet picturesque in the extreme; these huts rising in tiers, one above the other, to the

summit of the hill upon which it stood, and, as the roofs were flat, had a very singular appearance.

'On one side, a very extensive wood of date trees, in which we discovered, at the winding of the river, Fort Julien, built in a commanding situation, about two miles from the mouth of the Nile. This afforded not only a fine, but very interesting object; it had surrendered but the day before.

'At the other side a village crowded with children, running naked about, and splashing in the water, delighting their anxious parents, who assembled upon the banks to watch them.

'Immense tracts of ground, verdant with most luxurious clover; whole fields of cucumbers, sallads, beans, pumpkins, &c. &c.; pasture land covered with cattle; poultry of all kinds (except turkeys, of which, odd to say, there are none in this country,) other fowls in myriads; pigeons swarming about the villages which present themselves, every two or three hundred yards, upon the Delta side, proving its population and plenty; some of these villages with tolerably good houses, others entirely of huts and mud-holes, but all affording a novelty and variety of scene, and creature, that have made so strong an impression upon my mind, I never can forget my first trip up the Nile; which must at all times gladden and rejoice the poor unfortunate fellow who, like myself, shall enter it, either from a long *séjour* on board ship, or from the barren plains of Alexandria *. I confess the effect it produced upon me, was that of doing for me more than all the *medecins* or *medecines* in the country; I felt myself, for the moment, a renovated man.

'Though the sun was inclined to deal its heat most powerfully upon us, yet it was tempered by the charming fresh breeze, which one can almost always *command* upon this part of the Nile, and which wafted me safe to Rosetta, without being conscious of the languor and oppression of which I found every one in the town complain.

'I ought not to forget the delight we felt in being able, by leaning over the boat, to take up a drink of excellent good water, which was a *very scarce commodity* in our fleet; we found the water fresh within ten yards of the mouth of the Nile.

'The appearance of Rosetta through the trees, as you pass round the island, (the quarantine,) is really not only beautiful, but grand; the houses *seem* elegant, regularly built, very large, and have an *appearance* of grandeur, from their ancient style of architecture; all which wear off, though, upon a closer view. These, with the numerous lofty and majestic minarets (steeples) of their mosques, and the delightful gardens, and groupes of date trees, with which the environs are crowded, form a *coup d'œil* you can better fancy than I describe.'

'* Every thing is more or less beautiful by comparison. The description I have just given was drawn from the impression I felt at the moment, and such as I am convinced must have been made upon every man in the same situation.'

In

In another letter, we meet with some curious particulars respecting the supply of water in Egypt, and the disputed fact concerning rain in that climate:

'*The want of water in Egypt* carries with it a dreadful sound to the ear of a soldier about to commence a campaign in that country; and that we landed under the full impression that so *great was the scarcity*, we should be obliged to depend upon the fleet for our daily consumption, is *most certain*.—If that had been the case, I may venture to tell you, from *high authority*, we should have re-embarked very few days after our landing; but we found extremely good water literally upon the *very beach*, at the foot of the large sand hill, under which part of our troops landed, and which was wash'd by the sea. Indeed we scarcely missed finding water by digging near date-trees, from four to seven feet deep; it was white, and rather sweet, but no man in the army felt any ill effects from it.

'It is a curious fact, that the French, after three years residence in this country, and constantly keeping up a communication between Alexandria and Aboukir, there being a garrison in each place, should have been convinced, to the very last moment, that no water could be procured between those two places, a distance of seventeen miles: the proof of this is, that while you applied your canteen of water to the parched mouth of the suffering but gallant French soldier, who lay wounded upon the beach after the landing at Aboukir, he generously said, *Comrade, I thank you—be careful not to waste that water, for between this and Alexandria, near six leagues, you will not find a drop*, "*Pas le gout d'eau*" was the expression, and this was stated universally. The want of such truly necessary knowledge is accounted for thus: when a detachment marched from Alexandria to Aboukir, each soldier had his leathern bottle filled with water, which he most carefully preserved, being impressed with the idea that none was to be gotten during his march, which was made always at night. Certainly the want of water in Lower Egypt is not so alarming to people on the spot as to you who are distant. We were told, too, that we should have no rain—however, the very first night we were on shore, a good soaking shower wet us completely through—*a symptom of our being ill informed.* The fact is this, that upon the sea-coast there is frequent and heavy rain; but, retired from it, and up the country, to a certain distance, rain is not much known: at Cairo, for instance, they very seldom have any.'

In relating the capture of the French Dromedary-Corps, by General Doyle, the author gives a striking account of their appearance:

'This brilliant *coup* was highly advantageous to our army and creditable to him—but I promised not to enter into military details, and shall therefore say no more on a subject upon which I could wish to dwell, but will endeavour to give you an idea of the appearance this corps made. Imagine a regiment, in which the men were almost all tall, their apparent height increased considerably by a peculiar kind of hat, dressed in rich and new uniforms, mounted upon these im-

mense animals, which they guided with such facility by a cord from the nostril, as really to be able to go through *cavalry manœuvres*; but, to complete the scene, you must imagine still more—you must see this body of *new fashioned centaurs, this Brobdignag cavalry*, through the medium of the *Mirage*, a phenomenon in optics, which is, I believe, peculiar to this part of the world; but as I have spared you the details of battles, you must spare me those of philosophy; I refer you, then, to Mr. Walker, and our other English Sçavants, to clear up the Mirage for you.

'Certain it is that the dromedary corps, through this medium, gave the idea of something supernatural, and as this country was the theatre of Alladin's adventures, but a slight stretch of fancy was required to imagine it produced by means of his wonderful lamp. The splendid scenery in Pizarro could not more astonish the eye than the appearance of this extraordinary body.'

The work contains many other particulars highly amusing, respecting the domestic manners of the Egyptians; and we have no doubt that it will be read with pleasure.—The plates (in acqua-tinta) are, a view of that part of the coast in Aboukir bay on which our army landed; a view of a village on the Nile; sketches of female figures, all very ugly; and a soldier of the French Dromedary-Corps mounted.

Art. XIII. *The Importance of Malta considered*, in the Years 1796 and 1798; also Remarks which occurred during a Journey from England to India, through Egypt, in the Year 1779. By Mark Wood, Esq. M. P. late Chief Engineer, Bengal. 4to., pp. 78. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1803.

This publication consists of letters addressed by the author to Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, in November 1796, and April and Auguſt 1798; in which he demonstrates that the Importance of Malta is no recent idea, but must long ago have suggested itself to every one who adverted to the means of securing our Eastern possessions from the attacks of our restless and ambitious enemy. Colonel Wood was so fully impressed with this conviction in 1796, that he deemed it to be his duty, without loss of time, to transmit his thoughts to the then Minister. His statement is so luminous and concise, that our task in reporting it will be best performed by adopting his own words:

'The rich province of Egypt may be said to be contiguous to France, and remains an easy and tempting bait to the Republic, whenever she chooses to seize it.

'When I say that Egypt is contiguous to France, I wish only to express that its principal port, Alexandria, is within a few days sail of Toulon and of Marseilles. The French republic having Spain and Italy at her devotion, (which must undoubtedly be the case should we be expelled from the Mediterranean,) will be capable not only of undertaking,

undertaking, but of carrying into effect, projects, which, during the monarchy, she durst not have thought of, much less have acted upon. Having possession of Egypt, which unites the Mediterranean and Red Sea, the communication with India is expeditious and certain. In place of a traverse of five or six months round the Cape of Good Hope, with the casualties of such a voyage, the passage from Suez to any part of the coast of Malabar may be performed in less than one month, and to the coast of Coromandel nearly in the same time. Where then, gentlemen, will be the security of India, when, for every man we can send, the French will have the means of pouring in thousands?

'I know it may be argued, that there is some difficulty of finding transports in the Red Sea, and that an English fleet in the Straits of Babel Mandel will be a certain remedy for the apprehended evil. Whoever reasons in this manner, let me beg of him to reflect how many superior fleets we must thus be obliged to keep, to be guarded at every point; and whether or not the enormous expense of so many fleets and establishments would not, in the course of a little time, prove fatal to our country.

'It is better to foresee and prevent evils, than, by slumbering in a false security, suffer ourselves to be surprised. The possession of Malta, whilst it would give us the complete command of the Mediterranean, and of the Levant, and prove the most effectual curb that could be devised to the ambitious projects of the new republic; would, at the same time, be the most likely means of protecting our eastern empire, which otherwise must be subject to very imminent danger; and, although such an event may not happen immediately, yet I will venture to predict, that it will take place within a very few years after the re-establishment of a general peace.'

How are we to account for the present Ministry's conduct, in agreeing to the surrender of this important fortress; especially when Colonel Wood assures us, on his personal knowlege, that Mr. Addington entertained the same opinion on this head with himself?

The author's journey to the East Indies, through Germany to Venice, and thence along the Adriatic to Alexandria, Cairo, and Suez, and down the Red Sea, was undertaken by order of the Secret Committee of the East-India Directors, March 24, 1779. It was performed with all possible dispatch, and in course did not afford those opportunities for observation which are enjoyed by most travellers: but the remarks are amusing, and in some places important, as furnishing useful hints to those who may be appointed to pursue the same route. Notwithstanding several hindrances which Colonel Wood experienced, and against which he cautions future travellers to guard, he arrived at Alexandria May 16: on the 25th, he reached Suez; on the 27th, sailed thence; and on July 2d delivered his dispatches at Madras.

A memorandum, penned as he was sailing up the Nile, gives this sketch of Egypt:

'May 19th.—Had a very pleasant gale and fair wind blowing up the Nile the whole of this day; passed a number of beautiful towns and villages, scattered on the banks of the river.

'I occasionally went on shore with my gun, and killed a few pigeons and water fowl.

'The inhabitants of the country seem to be a very industrious and inoffensive race, and resemble very much in their manners and appearance the inhabitants of the banks of the Ganges. I not only amused myself in their fields, but entered their villages, and looked at their various employments, without meeting with the smallest obstruction or incivility. In some of their towns, I observed a manufactory of very handsome stuffs, silk and cotton, which are used for drawers and petticoats by the better sort of people; and their markets in the small towns seemed to be amply supplied with provisions.

'The mutton of Egypt is I think superior in flavour to that of any other part of the world, the beef is also good. Nothing appears wanting to make this delightful country one of the most agreeable in the world, excepting a mild good government, and it is only surprising, considering the frequent revolutions and despotism to which this country has been liable, to observe even now its apparently happy and flourishing state. Near the banks of the Nile the different seasons of the year appear united; for whilst on the high ground the fields were covered with rich crops of wheat, pease, and barley, ready to cut down, along the shelving banks of the river the natives were employed in thinning and transplanting luxuriant crops of rice, and towards Rozetto the grounds seemed to be cleaning and preparing for the receiving of this plant. From hence I conclude, that till the rice plants acquire a certain age, they are reared on the lower oozy and shelving banks of the river, and that the whole of the culture is in this manner; whereas in India the fields are generally sown, and the rice is only transplanted in the early crops, and when they are too luxuriant.'

We add an equally concise account of the Red Sea and of Suez:

'May 25th.—Observed our Sheick to move from our ground about two o'clock in the morning, and having suffered so much from the heat during the two preceding days, and understanding from Captain Robinson that the paths across the desart as far as Suez appeared to him to be so plainly marked, as not to run much risk of making a mistake, I determined to quit the caravan, and to make a push to get into Suez before the day should be much advanced. I accordingly quitted the caravan about half past three o'clock in the morning, and it being very clear moonlight, I found little difficulty in keeping the proper road. Going at a good pace, about eight o'clock in the morning I got sight of the Red Sea, apparently about twelve miles distant. Passed by several antelopes, and got a shot at one from horseback, but without success.

'The

'The top of the Red Sea is surrounded by lofty and craggy mountains, excepting a small opening towards Suez. Every thing wears a most barren dismal appearance, as neither tree, bush, nor the smallest verdure is to be seen as far as the eye can reach. The houses of Suez are nearly of the same colour as the sand, so that the town is not discernible till such time as you approach within the distance of a few miles; and had it not been for the shipping in the road, I should have been induced to have turned back, on the supposition of having made a mistake.

'I got into Suez about nine o'clock in the morning, and finding no person who could direct me to the house at which English gentlemen are generally accommodated, I took shelter in the first good house I met with on entering the town.

'The master was absent, but the servants were nevertheless very attentive. From the lesson which I had received from the old Arab Sheick, of the propensity which his brethren had for stealing horses, I was at first afraid to trust my mare with one of the servants, who very readily laid hold of my bridle; but considering that it would have a bad appearance to betray such a want of confidence, I was induced to dismount, was shewn into a large hall, on which was a Turkey carpet, and was quickly accommodated with a pipe, and dish of coffee. As chance would have it, it proved to be the house of the Turkish governor of Suez, who soon returned, and very politely invited me to breakfast with him in the Turkish manner, behaving to me in the most polite and hospitable style.'—

'May 27th.—About five o'clock in the evening weighed anchor, and with a strong gale at N. W. stood down the Red Sea. Till such time as we passed the mountains of Sinai and Zor, the Red Sea is very narrow, and apparently not more than five or six miles broad, barricaded on each side by high, rocky, and barren mountains. Immediately after passing the mountains of Sinai and Zor, the Red Sea gradually extends itself, and before we got opposite to the port of Juddah, we seldom saw the land on either side. Until of late years the navigation of the Red Sea has been very little known, and as northerly winds generally prevail in the upper part of the Gulph, betwixt Juddah and Suez, in which part are situated the only dangerous shoals, vessels have, on that account, made very tedious passages, having, on account of the shoals, lost, during the night, the ground which they gained during the day. As the shoals and channels begin at present to be very well known, this will no doubt greatly expedite the passage up the Red Sea.'

As this gentleman appears to be an accurate observer, the reader must lament that the nature of his mission did not allow him more time for the gratification of a laudable curiosity.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1803.

HISTORY.

Art. 14. *History of the Union of the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland;* with an Introductory Survey of Hibernian Affairs, traced from the Times of Celtic Colonization. By Charles Coote, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 530. 10s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1802.

We agree in opinion with the author of this volume, that the union, which took place between the two kingdoms at the beginning of the present century, is a transaction of sufficient dignity and moment to claim the tribute of a distinct history; and that the causes which gave rise to it, the circumstances which attended its progress, the incidents by which it was hastened or retarded, and the successive adjustments of the terms of incorporation, demand a copious narrative, and require a fullness of illustration. It is not, however, in our power to compliment him on the execution of his design; because we think that something more was necessary than a transcript of the debates in the two houses of parliament. They are, in the language of the French writers, *mémoires pour servir à l'histoire*, but can scarcely be considered as forming the history of the transaction itself; they should be frequently and sedulously consulted, and in many instances may be abridged with advantage: but Dr. Coote has found it an easier and more expeditious mode of publication to give these speeches, which constitute the chief part of his work, with all their redundancies and repetitions, at full length; so that his production may not improperly be considered as a collection of debates in this and the neighbouring country on the subject of the Irish Union. '*The Survey of the Hibernian Affairs, traced from the Times of Celtic Colonization,*' is included in less than FIFTEEN pages!

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 15. *The Speech of the Right Honourable Lord Carrington,* delivered at the Board of Agriculture, March 15, 1803. Printed by Order of the Board. 4to. Pamphlet.

In this speech, which is a neat specimen of gentlemanly oratory, Lord Carrington takes a retrospect of the conduct of the Board of Agriculture, during the three years of his presidency; explaining the objects to which the attention of the Board has been chiefly directed, and vindicating its proceedings. He represents it to have been their design, at their weekly meetings, 'to excite Emulation and promote Inquiry; to encourage and diffuse improvements in the construction and use of Instruments for abridging labour; in adapting a proper rotation of Crops, and a judicious selection of Manures, to different soils; and to endeavour, for all these purposes, to combine the results of Science with the practical knowledge of Agriculture: to discuss and consider new projects; to recommend such as are useful;

ful; to discountenance such as are visionary and impracticable; and, above all, to infuse into the minds of those honorary Members that come among us, a just sense of the importance of the study of Agriculture as a Science, and of the practice as an Art.'

The proceedings of the Board in consequence of the scarcity in the year 1800 having excited some animadversion, Lord C. passes them in review; justifying the advice which the society gave on that occasion, and recounting the efforts which it made to obtain a general inclosure bill. On this subject, he delivers his opinion with manliness and energy:

'The crisis in which the Bill was produced, was particularly favourable to it. A scarcity, almost approaching to a famine, existed, and this measure was loudly called for by the Publick. If, under such circumstances of pressure, those who had it in their power to administer the remedy, could suffer the passions, prejudices, or interests of others, so to mislead their judgment, what have we at this time to expect from the attempt? If, after the fatal experience of more than twenty millions sterling having been sent to foreign countries for the purchase of grain, within the short period of a very few years, they can shut their eyes upon the past, and consider the present abundance as perpetual; if they can still condemn millions of acres, which are capable of every kind of produce, to remain dreary wastes—I can impute it to little less than to a species of infatuation. The case seems to me desperate; and I may almost say of them, in the forcible language of Scripture, "Neither will they be persuaded, though one rose from the dead."

Lord C. next recounts the pains taken by the Board in adjudging the premiums for Essays on "the best method of converting Grass-lands into tillage, and, after a certain time, of restoring them to grass again, with improvements, or at least without injury," and their sedulous attention to avoid partiality. Between three and four hundred Essays were received on this subject, from which the Board selected matter for one volume *; and another, we find, is in readiness.

The harmony and cordiality which have prevailed at this Board are noticed with pride and satisfaction, and Lord C. does not omit to mention its economy and the good state of its finances.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 16. *Elements of War:* or, Rules and Regulations of the Army, in Miniature: Shewing the Duty of a Regiment in every Situation. By Nathaniel Hood, Lieut. H. P. 40th Regiment. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Debrett.

The first part of this work contains the method of parading a battalion, and its different movements: the second includes the whole form of a review; and the third relates to the duties of the different officers and guards in camp and garrison; Courts Martial; Military rank and honours; &c. somewhat in the style of Captain Reide's Military Discipline.

Mr. Hood has interspersed some sensible general remarks, from which we extract the following:

* See Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 59.

' Young

'Young officers should never be detached from head-quarters; nor should ensigns meet with any promotion till they clearly understood the system.—For this purpose, if boards of general officers, like courts of admiralty, were to meet, by order of commanders in chief, abroad and at home, to examine such ensigns as come forward recommended to be heard, and approve and disapprove according as found; granting certified qualifications, in order to entitle them to promotion as opportunity may present in turn; it would encourage the spirit of discipline, and every officer, rejected ensigns excepted, would be capable of his charge, and fit for the important trust of the public money and lives of thousands.'—

'Discipline is not to be promoted, however zealous the intent may be, by exercising the stern and haughty power of distinction out of place; nor will extreme unnecessary severity favour the attempt. If a deportment, founded on such principles, is held out to enforce obedience, obedience comes without respect: the rigid doctrine of an uniform austerity in man against man is waging war against nature. To hurt the feelings of the well-intended checks the progress of pursuit: it makes way for enmity, giving to secret opposition a place where all should link together, and in one united cause support the chain of rank.'—

'Regiments are deprived of their necessary numbers of officers by allowing field-officers companies: if they were otherwise recompensed, and each regiment allowed ten captains, it would add much to the good of the service. It would also be a farther addition, as well as a public saving, if his Majesty was pleased to grant no new commissions to private gentlemen whilst a single half-pay officer, able to serve, remained on the list. Farther, in time of peace, to dissolve the rank of ensign, giving place to lieutenants (their superiors), who otherwise fall back upon the present; the rotation of just promotion, in this case, would never be impeded.'

The first regulation proposed in this last paragraph has lately taken place.

VOYAGES.

Art. 17. *A Voyage Round the World;* performed during the Years 1790, 1791, and 1792. By Etienne Marchand. Preceded by a Historical Introduction, and illustrated by Charts, &c. Translated from the French of C. P. Claret Fleurieu, of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo, and 4to Atlas. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees.

An account of the Voyage of Captain Marchand, and of the various geographical remarks which M. Fleurieu has introduced in the work published with that title, has already been given by us at considerable length (see Appendix to our 33d, 34th, and 35th Volumes, N. S.). All that appears necessary to be done on the present occasion, therefore, is to notice the manner in which this translation has been executed.

In a prefatory advertisement, the editors inform the public that they were favoured with the fair sheets of the original by the author, M. Fleurieu. 'On comparing our translation with the original, (they say) it will be found that we have most scrupulously followed our Author from the beginning of his INTRODUCTION to the end of the JOUR-

NAL OF THE ROUTE. This comprises the whole of the NARRATIVE of MARCHAND's voyage, and the NOTES relating to it. The two volumes of natural history, descriptive of the birds, fishes, &c. &c. seen in the course of the voyage, being intended more as a vehicle of instruction to navigators in general, than a fresh source of information to persons already versed in that interesting science, we have thought that those who might be desirous of reaping in so extensive a field would prefer consulting the original to having recourse to a translation; and, for that reason, we have declined rendering them into English. Impressed with the same idea, we have omitted the "*Recherches sur les Terres Australes de* DRAKE, *et un examen critique du Voyage de* ROGGEWEEN," which, together with the "*Système métrique décimal appliqué à l'Hydrographie et aux calculs de la Navigation*," may be considered rather in the light of an Appendix than as forming an integral part of the original work.'

The parts which, in the foregoing extract, are mentioned to have been omitted, were so wholly unconnected with the voyage of Marchand, that the translators were fully intitled to the option of retaining or rejecting them.

They then proceed to state that, 'in the general chart exhibiting the tract of the *Solide*, as well as in the text, they have adhered to the *new hydrographical division and nomenclature* proposed by M. Fleurieu.' In doing this, the editors have gone beyond their original, and have likewise outstripped the limits of their own plan. M. Fleurieu, who wrote the *Observations sur la division hydrographique du Globe, et changemens proposés dans la nomenclature générale et particulière de l'Hydrographie*, did not advance his proposed changes into practice, but contented himself with using the customary and established names for the general chart which he published with the voyage of Marchand. When the translators chose to affix the names of the newly proposed nomenclature to their general chart, it became a matter of propriety, and almost of necessity, that M. Fleurieu's treatise on that head should have been included in their publication: yet it is one of the parts which they have omitted.—They have translated the whole of the narrative which relates to Marchand's voyage, and they appear to have rendered it with fidelity. In some parts, indeed, the original has been too closely followed; for in laboured passages, a translator ought to avail himself of opportunities of clearing the sense by varying the expression, when it can be done with advantage, and without departing from the ideas of the author.

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 18. *A Treatise on the Motion of Fluids, Natural and Artificial:* in which that of Air and Water is particularly considered, and demonstrated in a plain and familiar Manner. Illustrated with Copper Plates. By M. Clare, A. M. Revised and corrected, with considerable Additions, by R. Hall, M. D. 8vo. pp. 380. 10s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

This is one of those treatises of which we are compelled to speak in general terms. It is on the whole ably executed, but we would not undertake to defend it throughout, in all its reasonings and conjectures;

jectures. The facts and explanations which it contains are not new, but they are skilfully arranged and treated; and without great labour or preparatory study, a perusal of it will convey information, some practically useful, and much pleasantly curious.—Of the degree of merit that belongs to the present editor for his corrections and augmentations, we are unable to speak, as our endeavours to procure the original work have proved unsuccessful.

Art. 19. *A clear and satisfactory Demonstration of the Longitude;* and also, a Demonstration of the Surface of the Earth; with an Attempt to explain the Error in our present System. 4to. 5s. Winbolt and Co.

Be it known to all Mathematicians, to those who have long and unadvisedly admired Euclid, Archimedes, and Newton, that a certain computist (we are ignorant of his name) has, by long and laborious investigation, discovered that the surfaces of the spheres are *not* four times the area of their great circles; that the circumference of a circle is to its diameter *not* as 3.1416, &c. : 1, but as 3.2 : 1; that a *square* is to its *diagonal* as 5 : 7; &c.; besides a great number of other important facts. Now, therefore, we, styling ourselves critics, and professing to love truth better than either Socrates or Plato, do earnestly intreat the said Mathematicians to divest themselves of all prejudice and vulgar errors, and to prepare with all humility their minds for the reception of the great truths contained in this new Gospel of Mathematical Science.

POLITICAL.

Art. 20. *Buonaparte in the West Indies; or, the History of Toussaint Louverture, the African Hero.* In Three Parts. 8vo. 3d. each Part. Hatchard.

Since friends are prone to extenuate and panegyrize, and enemies to degrade and calumniate, it is difficult for the public to obtain the real characters of men; and the only rule for avoiding gross error is to make reasonable allowances for the prejudices and motives of either party. If the life of Toussaint by Dubroca (see M. Rev. Vol. xxxviii. p. 332. N. S.) was published at Paris in order to blacken his reputation, this pamphlet is as evidently composed to wash it white, and to give it brilliancy. The African Hero is here celebrated for his piety, humanity *, noble sentiments, and honourable conduct; while the proceedings of Bonaparte towards him and the negroes of St. Domingo are represented as full of baseness, treachery, and cruelty. In resisting the propositions of Coisnon, which were artfully made under circumstances of the most affecting kind, this biographer speaks of Toussaint's strength and magnanimity as derived from divine assistance: 'I doubt not that, at this trying moment, he thought of the heroism of the Cross, and was strengthened from above.' We more than doubt the propriety of such an assertion, being confident that it is no real embellishment to the narrative.

* 'There is, in spite of slander, no just ground to believe that one drop of blood not shed fairly in the field, and in the heat of action, ever tarnished the glory of Toussaint.'

An uniform strain of encomium on the African hero pervades these pages:

'He never despaired of the cause of freedom, never offered to abandon it; but still preferred all the dangers and sufferings of war, to a peace which would have placed him in safety, riches, and power, but which must have been bought at the expence of his honour and virtue, or, let me rather say, of his duty to God. Worldly men may be thought staunch patriots, and may think themselves so; but there are cases too trying for any virtue that is not rooted in religion. To devote himself to the public good, and sacrifice all that is dear to him, even life itself, when the very people for whom all this is to be suffered distrust, forsake, and betray their generous champion, is a flight of virtue too high for any one who does not, like Toussaint, expect his praise and his reward in a better world.'

With a virtuous enmity to slavery and the slave-trade, this writer pours forth the full current of his indignation on the object and measures of Bonaparte in the expedition to St. Domingo, and rejoices in its complete failure.

Entering on the last act of his Hero's life, the author thanks God that, though a white man, he is not a Frenchman; and if the charges here adduced against our enemies respecting their perfidy, barbarity, and dishonour, be well founded, he may justly be allowed to boast of a *negative* pride in not belonging to that nation.

After a series of cruel sufferings in cold and damp dungeons, Toussaint died, if we may credit the French papers, in the prison of Besançon, on the 25th of April last; and he 'is gone (to use the words of his present biographer) to reap the fruits of his virtues in that happier world "where the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest."

An Appendix is promised, in which the innocence of this African Chief is to be proved on the testimony of his enemies.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, on the Principles of Paper Loans,* and their Influence on National Power. 8vo. 1s. Scott.

In strict propriety, we ought not to say that things are dearer than they were formerly, but that money is cheaper; and this cheapness of money arises from its abundance, or rather from the abundance of that which passes for money, and in a great measure supplies its place; for the quantity of Coin is not increased, but has suffered a visible diminution. Articles of trade and commerce are more likely to be kept at a low and uniform price by the use of metallic money employed as the medium of exchange, than by the substitution of paper-money; since the quantity of coin is limited, while paper currency may be multiplied *ad libitum*. When, however, the issue of paper-money has been excessive, it is much easier to lament the evils which it has created, than to apply a safe and practicable remedy. It must be remarked, also, that, if the introduction of the paper medium has been attended with some bad effects, and may (unless great prudence be employed) produce certain fatal consequences, it has served very good purposes, in as much as it has enlarged the sphere of the na-

tional energy.—The writer of this pamphlet espouses only one side of the question, and the substance of his argument is thus compressed in the Advertisement:

'The letter endeavours to shew, that loans of paper make no part of national wealth—that paying interest for paper does not replenish the public treasury, enriches only lenders of paper, and is therefore an unnecessary burden upon the people—that converting this paper into money increases the expences of government, of industry, of trade, and of commerce, and turns the balance of trade and course of exchange against England—that this tax and conversion are therefore injurious to all who feel interested in the government, the prosperity and the independence of England—that they aid foreigners and lenders of paper, and those only—and that allowing loans of paper, is therefore at this time peculiarly improper—that prohibiting those loans, would reduce the expences of industry, of trade, of commerce, and of *government*—that the taxes now paid for paper, if continued after the proposed prohibition, would not be given to lenders of paper, but might be applied to the *public revenue*, which to the government would open new and legitimate sources of taxation—or if those taxes should be discontinued, this discontinuance would ease the *people*—consequently that it is the interest of the people and of the government, (and these two constitute the public,) to prohibit those loans—and that this prohibition would encourage the industry, the trade, the commerce—would increase the population, the unanimity, the wealth, the strength; and facilitate the defence of the people, the government, and the kingdom of England.'

It is certainly one of the evils of the paper-money system, that it gives an undue advantage to the lenders or issuers of paper; who, in fact, have a mint of their own; and while the Bank is restrained from cash payments, to paper loans only can the Minister have recourse. A Government, like ours, when it appears to borrow to the amount of the debt which it has contracted, does in fact neither borrow nor pay; it only enables those who are public creditors in one shape to become public creditors in another.

Art. 22. *An Appeal to the People of the United Kingdoms*, against the insatiable Ambition of Bonaparte: preceded by a Vindication of their Character, with Reference to the Peace of Amiens. 8vo. pp. 260. 4s. Mawman. 1803.

In addition to the numerous sketches which have already been given, of the domineering system of Bonaparte, we are furnished by the present writer with a whole-length picture of his ambition; in which every feature is carefully and patiently delineated. Rejoicing in the freedom of the British press, and believing the present circumstances of Europe to demand its exercise in a peculiar degree, the author boldly makes his appeal to the people of the United Kingdom; minutely commenting on the behaviour of Bonaparte relative to Switzerland, Holland, Piedmont, and his election to the Presidency of the Italian Republic; adverting also to the confiscations of the Fame packet and the brig George, and to the conduct of the Consular Government towards the British creditors in French funds.

These

These facts are adduced to prove that Bonaparte, from the first moment of peace, proceeded in his course of ambition with an uniform stride, and evinced an irreconcileable hatred to Britain.

The author expresses his disapprobation of the late peace; which, he observes, not only excited on the Continent an idea that we were exhausted, and that our spirit was fallen, but afforded during its continuance an opportunity to the Consul, of enjoying all the fruits of successful hostility without any of its cares. It is needless to add that he is pleased that such a peace is at an end, and that we are engaged in a war which is levelled against an imperious and insulting power. Though the case of Malta and Sabastiani's report are noticed, the idea that we are contending *for* Malta is scouted. War, or our eternal humiliation, is conceived to be the sole alternative; and the author is of opinion that it was fortunate that the stubborn mind of the First Consul rejected our ultimatum. Under this impression, he advises us to prepare for the most vigorous conflict; reminding Ministers of their awful responsibility, and warning the people of the burdens and hardships to which they must of necessity submit. He concludes with this animated address:

'BRITONS! you have now beheld all that imagination can descry as appalling in your prospects—May you not equally attend to the glory and the honors which reason anticipates or assures?—You stand forth to Europe, immediately indeed to repel dishonor; but not the less to guard the freedom of the press from persevering hostility—that sacred barrier, but for which tyranny, hypocrisy, and impiety might now pass current throughout the world for magnanimity, virtue, and religion.—You wield the weapons of war to strike into a callous heart the full belief that humanity may be the source of a love of peace as well as weakness or timidity. In short, experience nerves your arms with the conviction that *that* tranquillity, *that* justice, and those advantages which chiefly constitute peace a blessing, are with Bonaparte only to be enjoyed after a war that shall engrave on his mind the lasting conviction that Britons *cannot* be subdued.'

This sentiment seems to be general; and Britons are prepared to show themselves worthy of Independence, Liberty, and Peace.

Art. 23. *The Reason Why.* In Answer to a Pamphlet intitled Why do we go to War?* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

It is almost impossible to bring a new argument into this field of discussion: but the writer of this pamphlet reasons with great clearness, and makes out a strong case in our favour. The question *why do we go to war?* is answered by an exposure of the insulting arrogance and the hostile designs of France against this country. Instead of entering into the particulars of the argument, which have been often repeated, we shall extract a short passage into which its essence is condensed:—'The war was not only necessary to our prosperity, our honour, and our defence, but to our very salvation and existence; and which, so far from being a subject of reprobation and regret, is the only event that could snatch us from bondage and perdi-

* See our Review for August.

tion.'

tion.'—War, however, is a very awful measure; and the author of the pamphlet intitled "Why do we go to war?" might lament so speedy an unsheathing of the sword, and even write in favour of peace, without incurring the imputation of being a champion of France. The weight of evidence, in support of the necessity of the present war, is apparent in the unprecedented unanimity of the people; and we are clearly of opinion, with the writer before us, that 'to demur about the assertion of national independence is a desperate experiment.'

Art. 24. *A Friendly Address to the Volunteers of Great Britain.* 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons.

The author of this well-timed address endeavours to correct some of the evils to which the volunteer-system is obnoxious. He exhorts the volunteers to become *soldiers in earnest*, and, with that view, to submit to all the training and discipline which is necessary to constitute an effective military force. This short pamphlet, being entirely of a practical nature, ought to be generally perused.—We understand that the public are indebted for it to the Rev. Mr. Patteson, of Richmond, Surrey.

Art. 25. *Advice addressed to the Lower Ranks of Society*, useful at all Times, more especially in the present. By Wm. Burdon, A.M. 8vo. 6d. Ostell.

That Fortune confers Independence is the general opinion: but Mr. Burdon's doctrine is that the labouring poor are the most independent rank in society, and that labour is the best sort of property. He *kindly* informs the Poor, that it is for their interest not to multiply too fast; and he *particularly* advises them to keep down their numbers, by avoiding early marriages, that they may command good wages. It may be asked, however, if Poverty be such a blessing, Why should the industrious poor restrain their natural appetites for the sake of good wages, which will tend to make them rich?

Adverting to the present circumstances of the country, Mr. Burdon calls on the lower ranks to join with their superiors in resisting the Invader, who has 'compelled the Swiss cottager to feed on acorns and wild fruit,' and who is bent on taking our all from us, whether rich or poor. We fear that the Lower Ranks will not admire Mr. B.'s logic.

Art. 26. *A Serious Address to the Public, upon the present Times*: and more particularly to the Religious Part of it. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This pamphlet, which is partly of a political and partly of a religious complexion, commences with a view of the nature of the present war; which is represented to be something more than a war with Bonaparte;—to be a war with the French nation, who are and would be, whether their present ruler existed or not, bent on our subjugation and overthrow; and who, in this attempt, have at least the good wishes of the surrounding nations. Some degree of fear and alarm must almost necessarily attach to such a sentiment, yet the author does not despair; especially if we contend against the foe with our

our bibles, as well as with our swords. Considering the legitimate defence of a country to consist in the number of those who live up to that line of duty which Christianity requires of them, he exerts himself to diffuse its spirit and practice, in order that the lives of men may correspond with their professions. He recommends the Study of the Scriptures, Prayer, the devout observance of the Sabbath, Public Worship, the Reception of the Sacrament, and the religious Instruction of the rising Generation. Our fair Countrywomen are addressed on the virtues of modesty and decorum in dress, and our Soldiers in Arms on the importance of the Christian Warfare; and the author quotes the words of Bishop Sanderson: "Fighting without prayer is Atheism, and Prayer without fighting is Presumption."

Art. 27. *A Brief Answer to "A Few Cursory Remarks on the present State of Parties by a Near Observer."* 8vo 2s. Budd.

If this writer does not wield the pen with such dexterity as his antagonist, he is equally zealous for his party; and he vehemently resists the attacks, both direct and indirect, made on Mr. Pitt and the members of the late administration, in the pamphlet * to which this is designed as an Answer. 'Mr. Pitt (says this writer) is no more to be blamed for refusing to act with Mr. Addington and his friends, to the exclusion of his own, than a mechanic would be, for refusing to repair a house with blunt and broken tools, when new and sharp-edged instruments lay at hand, the use of which was denied him.' Mr. Addington and his coadjutors having been once compared to blunt and broken tools, the blow is followed up; and a sanguine hope is expressed that, before many months are elapsed, we shall see them dismissed, and the members of the old administration actively co-operating in their endeavours to save the country, and inflict severe vengeance on our inveterate foe.—It is common with party-writers to insinuate that the country cannot be saved unless their friends are at the head of affairs.

Art. 28. *Reflections on the late Elections in the County of Cambridge;* with incidental Remarks on the present State of the Nation. By a Freeholder of that County. 8vo. 1s 6d. Hatchard.

From the fens of Cambridgeshire (a county which, though possessing a celebrated University, is here said to be almost lost in Cimmerian darkness,) we are taken into the House of Commons; and from the British House of Parliament, to Bonaparte and Tippoo Saib. Readers who are not intimately acquainted with the particulars of the late Cambridgeshire Election will not understand these reflections; and they who do will not perceive their connection with the other parts of the pamphlet. The author, however, is a man of extensive reading, of which he has made a liberal use; and he has endeavoured to sketch the characters of our chief statesmen and politicians, for the purpose of throwing light on the present state of parties: which perhaps in his opinion is synonymous with *the present state of the Nation.* Some observations are introduced on the pamphlet, intitled "*A Few Cursory Remarks on the State of Parties;*" and the

* See our Review for August.

political portraits of Lords Grenville, Temple, and Hawkesbury, and of Messrs. Pitt, Addington, Fox, Sheridan, Windham, Tierney, &c. are exhibited. The present Minister is said 'to have the spirit of an Englishman, but to want *strength*, which he will acquire neither by detracting from others, nor by panegyrizing himself, nor allowing, which is the same thing, his immediate adherents to do so for him.'

Bonaparte is compared to a burnt-out-comet; and his successful opponent, Sir Sidney Smith, is complimented with the title of *the hero and saviour of Palestine.*

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 29. *A Short Essay on the Nature and Cause of Influenza;* in which the important Question is discussed, Whether the Influenza is contagious or not? With Answers to the Questions of Dr. Beddoes, proposed in his Circular Letters to the different Medical Practitioners. To which *is* added, Observations on the Cause of the London Plague in 1665; together with a Hint for stopping the Ravages of the Yellow Fever in the West Indies. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

In considering the question of the contagious nature of the late Influenza, the writer of this essay seems to have attended little to evidence on the subject; and he forms his opinion in the affirmative, for a reason which will not impress our readers with a high idea of his judgment, viz. 'because the plurality of cases discovered the type of the attendant fever to approach for the most part to a typhoid nature.' By this expression, he means that the debility was considerable, that the inflammatory symptoms were slight, and therefore that the disease was of a typhoid nature, and was necessarily infectious. The origin of this epidemic he conceives to have been the gentle frost, with 'a keen piercing wind,' which succeeded a series of 'mild and moist weather with very little dry frost;' and thus, that it was produced at first by a change in the atmosphere, though it was afterward propagated by contagion.

The plague is asserted by this author to have originated from a state of the weather opposite to that which he supposes to have produced Influenza, namely, a mild temperature, succeeding long-continued frost. His hint with regard to the yellow fever is that, as a moderate degree of warmth is most favourable to health in the West Indies, care should be taken to reduce the temperature of the atmosphere, by watering the streets during the heat of the day, at the public expence.

Art. 30. *The Domestic Medical Guide;* or, Complete Companion to the Family Medicine Chest; comprizing, in addition to the former Edition, the Management of Children, Treatment of Poisons, Recovery of Drowned Persons, Method of destroying Contagion by Fumigation; with a more copious Account of Diseases, and the most rational Mode of Treatment, &c. By Richard Reece, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 308. 6s. Boards. Highley.

We learn that Mr. Reece has established a Medical and Chemical Hall, for the purpose of making chemical and pharmaceutical preparations,

rations, in strict adherence to the formulæ and instructions of the London College; and *the Domestic Medical Guide* may in some degree be considered as an advertisement for the purpose of making this circumstance known, and of informing the world of the contents, structure, and prices of the various medicine-chests which the author prepares for sale. In order, however, that the purchasers may be enabled to employ them with advantage, or at least may not be entirely ignorant of their use, he has given the properties and doses of the several medicines which they contain, at considerable length, and has also gone into a general alphabetical account of the nature and cure of diseases; with the hopes, more particularly, of assisting such persons as are remote from medical advice.

Art. 31. *An Account of the Discovery of the Power of Mineral Acid Vapours to destroy Contagion.* By John Johnstone, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1803.

At the time of an application being made to Parliament by Dr. Carmichael Smyth, for a remuneration on account of his successful employment of the fumes of nitrous acid in the destruction of contagion, it was admitted that the vapours of muriatic acid had been employed by Morveau, some years before, for the same purpose: but, at the same time, it was contended that the pleasantness, mildness, and safety of the former, if not its superior efficacy, rendered its first adoption a proper object of national reward. The author of the present pamphlet considers the operation of all mineral acid vapours as of the same kind, and therefore cannot admit that the mere change from the use of one to another of them can be regarded as a discovery, when the effects produced by a particular species were before clearly and unequivocally ascertained. This objection is applied to the originality of Dr. Smyth's claims; and to those of Morveau, the author presents the previous employment of muriatic acid vapour evolved from common salt by means of vitriolic acid, by his father Dr. Jas. Johnstone, of Worcester, previously to the year 1756. The efficacy of this practice was communicated to the world in the year 1758, in a work intitled, "An Historical Dissertation concerning the malignant Epidemical Fever of 1756, with some account of the malignant Diseases prevailing since the year 1752 in Kidderminster *," which is said to have attracted so much notice, that the 'whole edition was quickly sold.' The same practice was familiar to several practitioners in Worcester and its neighbourhood, and was mentioned by Dr. James Johnstone jun. in a treatise on the Sore-throat, published in the year 1779 †. These facts, with some others in confirmation of them, the author considers it his duty to bring forwards, in order to vindicate the claim of his father to the discovery of the power of mineral acids correcting febrile contagion. As it has been denied that the muriatic acid possesses this power in an equal degree with the nitrous, or that it can be used with the same safety and convenience, Dr. J. mentions a number of facts, from which he infers 'that the muriatic is equally efficacious, and may be used at least with equal convenience with the nitrous, that it is equally mild, and equally safe in like quantities.'

* See Rev. Vol. xviii. p. 244. † Rev. Vol. lxi. p. 29.

Dr. Johnstone seems to have fully substantiated the claims of his father, as the discoverer of the destructive power of the mineral acids in contagion. With regard to the differences, in point of efficacy or pleasantness, of the nitrous compared with the muriatic, they appear, from what we have seen of their use, to be very trifling.

Art 32. *The Report on the Cowpock Inoculation*, from the Practice at the Vaccine-Pock Institution, during the years 1800, 1801, and 1802; read at the General Meeting of the Governors, February 7th, 1803, at the Shakspeare Tavern; written by the Physicians to the Institution; to which are prefixed two painted Engravings of the Cowpock, and other Eruptions. 8vo. pp. 136. 6s. Boards. Becket, &c.

At the commencement of this report, a short view is given of the history of vaccine inoculation, and of the establishment of an institution for the purpose of favouring its introduction and disseminating its advantages This is followed by a statement, in the form of propositions, of the principal facts relating to the cowpock, which have either been ascertained by the reporters, or by others who have paid particular attention to the subject.—The latter part of the work is occupied by some additional observations, which have occurred since the reading of this communication at the general meeting, and with the third annual report of the Vaccine pock inoculation; in which last are contained the rules of the charity and a list of its governors.

The numbers inoculated for three years, up to December 1802, have been as follow:

From the 18th Jan. to the 31st Dec. were inoculated,	317
From the 1st Jan. 1801, to Dec. 31st, - - -	287
From the 1st Jan. 1802, to Dec. 31st, 1802, -	569
	1173

Most of the facts mentioned in this report having been already communicated to the public through other channels, it becomes unnecessary to enter into any detailed account of them. We shall only farther observe that it does not appear to the reporters, from some statements made from the bills of mortality, that we are yet warranted in drawing any conclusions concerning the effects of the new practice on population.

Art. 33. *Useful Hints to those who are afflicted with Ruptures:* on the Nature, Cure, and Consequences of the Disease; and on the Empirical Practices of the present Day. By T. Sheldrake, Trussmaker to the Westminster Hospital. 8vo. pp. 160. 5s. Boards. Sold by the Author

Mr. Sheldrake considers the declaration of an ability to make such trusses as will invariably suit all cases, as an instance of gross empiricism. He therefore takes considerable pains to convince such as may be interested in the subject, that it is necessary to obtain early and effectual surgical advice on the nature of their cases; and to employ, in procuring a truss, the labours of such as may be able to adapt it to the particular formation of the parts, and other attendant circumstances. The elastic circular truss is that which the author recommends, and it is particularly required that it should be strong enough to keep up the rupture, yet not so inflexible as to inconvenience

ence the body. The various observations which Mr. S. makes on the empirical practices of the present day, on the principles of truss-making, and on the proper mode of a patient's managing himself under this complaint, terminate, with the volume, in giving us the information that, at the author's manufactory, trusses, and the various instruments used by him for correcting deformities in children, are made with every attention to accuracy; and that, from the precautions which he is able to adopt by the division of labour, no one person can ever become acquainted with the peculiar practical application of his principles, so as to be enabled to copy his improvements

The principal part of the volume is occupied by strictures, frequently extremely personal and offensive, though sometimes amusing, on the various plans which the vanity, interest, or philanthropy of individuals may have induced them to lay before the public, for the relief of those who are affected with ruptures.

Art. 34. *Observations on Crural Hernia:* to which is prefixed, a general Account of the other Varieties of Hernia. Illustrated by Engravings. By Alex. Monro, jun. M.D. F.R.S E. and Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

Dr. Monro seems to have devoted considerable attention to the various observations on the subject of aneurism, which are to be found in the works of surgical writers; and from them, rather than from an extensive experience of his own, he has furnished a judicious and useful essay. Before he enters on the consideration of that species of this disease, which it is his more peculiar object to illustrate, he premises a general account of the nature and various forms of hernia.—Among the varieties of ventral hernia, which he has occasion to enumerate, he mentions a curious one which occurred to his father, Dr. Monro, sen., and Dr. Farquharson. Two tumours, situated one on each side of the back of a child, six months old, immediately under the false ribs, were found, on accurate examination, to contain each a kidney; which could readily be reduced, through an oval ring of a considerable size.—A singular instance of internal protrusion of the intestines is also given, on the authority of Dr. Rutherford: in which case there was a preternatural aperture in the mesentery, through which a portion of the ileum had protruded, and was strangulated; the bowels being twisted in a very extraordinary manner The patient (a female) died in consequence of inflammation in the bowels; and, on examination, the portion of the ileum which passed through the mesentery was found to be strangulated

In his descriptions of the parts concerned in crural hernia, the author acknowleges his obligations to Albinus and Gimbernat: but, in order to be more accurate and perspicuous, he has paid particular attention to the dissection of those parts, and has annexed some engravings designed to illustrate their nature and relative position. In his account of the situation of the blood-vessels, with respect to the herniary sac, he mentions various peculiarities in the position of the epigastric and obturator arteries, in order to point out the danger of dividing one of them in the operation —The other parts of his observations are occupied with an examination of the nature of the herniary

sac and its contents, and with the diagnosis, prognosis, and method of operating in crural hernia.—In the last mentioned article, he quotes Gimbernat's method of operating in his own words, and also annexes that which is recommended by Dr. Monro, sen. in his lectures. The former has long been before the public; it consists in opening the herniary sac, and introducing along the internal side of the intestines into the crural ring a canulated or grooved sound, with a blunt end; and this is to be followed by a bistoury with a narrow blade and blunt end, which is to be introduced through the ring by the groove of the sound.—The bistoury is then to be pressed cautiously 'to the end of the canal;' and, employing both hands at once, 'both instruments are to be carried close along the branch to the body of the pubis, drawing them out at the same time.' The other plan of operating is the following:

"In the femoral hernia, the external incision is to be made obliquely, from within, outwards and downwards, beginning the incision an inch or so above the tendon called ligament of Fallopius, and continuing it to the like distance below the ligament.

"We are next to make a small hole, immediately below the ligament in the tendinous aponeurosis, which covers the muscles on the inner side of the thigh, and is connected to the ligament.

"We are then to introduce the point of a small furrowed probe or directory under the ligament; and holding this in the oblique direction upwards, towards the umbilicus, we are cautiously and slowly to divide, with the straight probe pointed knife, one little bundle of the tendinous fibres after another, using the knife as a saw, instead of entering its point deep within the tendon, and then raising its handle, so as to make a large sweep or extensive incision with the edge of the knife.

"I advise the edge of the knife to be turned towards the umbilicus; because, if it be turned inwards, towards the ring of the external oblique muscle, as Le Dran directs, it will very readily cut the spermatic chord, or round ligament of the uterus; and, if it is turned outwards, as Mr. Sharp advises, it may readily cut the epigastric artery: but when we turn it towards the umbilicus, it will be directed to the place at which the spermatic chord and epigastric artery cross each other, like the strokes of the letter x, and of course will be at the greatest possible distance from both.

"If, besides giving the knife this direction, we slowly and cautiously divide the tendinous ligament, dilating the opening gradually by introducing the finger, I know, not only from the situation of parts in the sound body, but from a considerable number of cases, in which I have assisted in the operation, that the tendinous ligament may be completely divided without cutting the spermatic chord, or epigastric artery."

Dr. M. seems to give the preference to Gimbernat's mode of operating: but he objects to the plan recommended by that writer, of opening the herniary sac, which allows the approach of air, and thus gives rise to considerable inflammation. To support his observations on the last point, he subjoins in an appendix, a long extract from his father's work on *Bursæ Mucosæ**, in which this subject is particularly noticed.

* See Rev. Vol. lxxix. p. 497.

Art.

POETRY.

Art. 35. *Rural Tales, Ballads, and Songs*. By Robert Bloomfield, Author of the Farmer's Boy. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

The author of this small miscellany is already well known to the public, and we have had occasion to speak favourably of his first performance *. In the verses before us, we perceive similar efforts of an ingenious mind, combating the disadvantages of early education, with a degree of modesty which inclines us to allow the writer the fullest credit for his success. At the same time it is necessary to observe that, in consideration of the deficiencies above mentioned, we overlook several faults which would require animadversion under different circumstances; and that we cannot by any means regard these poems as finished pieces. They derive a strong interest, however, from the truth and simplicity with which they paint the manners of a humble but respectable race,—the labouring poor. Mr. Bloomfield has expressed himself on this subject with great propriety, in his Preface:

'I was not prepared for the decided, and I may surely say extraordinary attention which the Public has shewn towards the Farmer's Boy: the consequence has been such as my true friends will rejoice to hear; it has produced me many essential blessings. And I feel peculiarly gratified in finding that a poor man in England may assert the dignity of Virtue, and speak of the imperishable beauties of Nature, and be heard, and heard, perhaps, with greater attention for his being poor.'

The author mentions, also, with becoming gratitude, of the friendship of Mr. Lofft: but we are of opinion that the zeal of that gentleman has led him beyond the bounds of critical discretion, in the applauding observations which he has annexed to each of the poems. It is no real kindness to Mr. B. to compare him with Dryden †. Let us forbear such injustice to the mighty dead: Dryden's lyre has never been new-strung.

We could with much pleasure select many passages from this miscellany: but we must beware of despoiling a volume of this moderate size. Our readers will be glad to see the following short poem, which is written with real feeling and simplicity:

'THE WIDOW TO HER HOUR-GLASS.

I.

'Come, friend, I'll turn thee up again;
Companion of the lonely hour!
Spring thirty times hath fed with rain
And cloath'd with leaves my humble bower,
Since thou hast stood
In frame of wood,
On Chest or Window by my side;
At every Birth still thou wert near,
Still spoke thine admonitions clear.—
And, when my Husband died,

* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 50.

† P. 34 (note). Again, note on p. 58.

2.

'I've often watch'd thy streaming sand
And seen the growing Mountain rise,
And often found Life's hopes to stand
On props as weak in Wisdom's eyes:
Its conic crown
Still sliding down,
Again heap'd up, then down again;
The sand above more hollow grew,
Like days and years still filt'ring through,
And mingling joy and pain.

3.

'While thus I spin and sometimes sing,
(For now and then my heart will glow)
Thou measur'st Time's expanding wing;
By thee the noontide hour I know:
Though silent thou,
Still shalt thou flow,
And jog along thy destin'd way:
But when I glean the sultry fields,
When Earth her yellow Harvest yields,
Thou gett'st a Holiday.

4.

'Steady as Truth on either end
Thy daily task performing well,
Thou'rt Meditation's constant friend,
And strik'st the Heart without a Bell;
Come, lovely May!
Thy lengthen'd day
Shall gild once more my native plain;
Curl inward here, sweet Woodbine flow'r;—
"Companion of the lonely hour,
I'll turn thee up again."

We add the following song, as a specimen of Mr. Bloomfield's gayer composition;

'ROSY HANNAH.

1.

'A Spring o'erhung with many a flow'r,
The grey sand dancing in its bed,
Embank'd beneath a Hawthorn bower,
Sent forth its waters near my head:
A rosy Lass approach'd my view;
I caught her blue eye's modest beam,
The stranger nodded "how d'ye do!"
And leap'd across the infant stream.

2.

'The water heedless pass'd away:
With me her glowing image stay'd,
I strove, from that auspicious day,
To meet and bless the lovely Maid,

'I met

3.

'I met her where beneath our feet
Through downy Moss the wild-Thyme grew;
Nor Moss elastic, flow'rs though sweet,
Match'd Hannah's cheek of rosy hue.

4.

'I met her where the dark Woods wave,
And shaded verdure skirts the plain;
And when the pale Moon rising gave
New glories to her cloudy train.
From her sweet Cot upon the Moor
Our plighted vows to Heaven are flown;
Truth made me welcome at her door,
And rosy Hannah is my own.'

We shall conclude by recommending this volume to the lovers of Pastoral Simplicity and unaffected Morality.

A volume of Poems by this author's Brother will be mentioned in our next Number.

Art. 36. *Terrible Tractoration!!* a Poetical Petition against Galvanizing Trumpery, and the Perkinistic Institution. In Four Cantos. Most respectfully addressed to the Royal College of Physicians. By Christopher Caustic, M.D., &c. 2d Edition, with great Additions. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hurst. 1803.

A prudent General, when he finds himself baffled in one mode of attack, tries a different disposition. In like manner, some friend to the doughty Tractors, having thought Mr. Perkins sorely galled in pedestrian prose, has brought up Pegasus (the Parnassian cavalry) to support him: but we apprehend that he has been deceived in the choice of his Steed, which appears to be a jade, and that he is not sufficiently drilled to be fit for action; he certainly is quite premature in offering himself to be *reviewed*.

To drop the figure; this book contains an ironical attack on the Opponents of the Tractors, in Hudibrastic Verse, which resembles that of Butler only in the jingle. From some of the rhymes, we should suspect the author to come "*frae the North*;" for example,

'Just so the ancient poets *learn* us
That crows, which flew o'er lake Avernus'—

To *learn*, instead of *teach*, is a rank Scotticism; as well as *just so*.

In another couplet, the Satirist has sinned against *quantity*;

——— as terrible to see as
The hundred-handed Briarëus.

With this consummate knowlege of English and Latin, Dr. Caustic sets up as a Reformer of the whole Faculty in England, and as the *lengthy* Vindicator of the American Magus—

"*Et vitula tu dignus, et hic!*"

It would contribute nothing to the amusement of our readers, to make any farther observations on or extracts from this farrago. The

author is indeed a most unlucky advocate; for he reduces the question to this dilemma (p. 112.), that every Physician in England is a knave, or that the Tractors are an imposition.—We leave our readers to draw their own conclusion.

EDUCATION.

Art. 37. *The Etymology and Syntax of the English Language.* By the Reverend Alexander Crombie, LL.D. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

It has been a just subject of reproach to many good classical scholars of former times, that, while they devoted much critical study to the grammatical niceties of the Latin and Greek tongues, they were barbarians (as the Greeks would say) in regard to their vernacular idiom. The great attention and philosophical investigation, which learned men of the present age have directed to the subject of grammar, have contributed in a great measure to remove this censure; and among the labours of those who have distinguished themselves in this department of science, the public will deservedly reckon the ingenious and careful researches of Dr. Crombie.—From our inspection of this volume, we perceive that the Doctor, though he fairly appreciates the labours of his predecessors, and distinguishes between the errors of Harris and the acuteness of Horne Tooke, yet builds not on any other man's foundation alone: but, while he makes use of their aid, he furnishes many original materials from the resources of his own mind. The treatise is composed with precision and perspicuity; and although, from its size and philosophical inquiries, it is not calculated for the younger part of schools, in the higher forms it will prove a valuable guide to the knowlege of our native language.

Art. 38. *The first Part of the Pronouncing Spelling-Book;* containing a Number of Rules for Spelling, &c. &c. By Mrs. Wilmshurst. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Conder.

In this spelling-book, which Mrs. Wilmshurst compiled for the use of her seminary at Maldon in Essex, the authority of Dr. Johnson is generally followed, and the spelling lessons are divided according to the plan of Dr. Lowth. If the publication should be approved, it is Mrs. W.'s intention to print a second part, which will contain an abridgement of Walker's principles of English pronunciation.—As this lady offers the present work to the public from her own experience of its utility, it would be hardly fair in us to call its merits in question. The spelling lessons, indeed, appear to be well arranged: but, reasoning on the subject *à priori*, we should foresee many and great difficulties in teaching the *pronunciation* of words to children by any other effectual means than *vivâ voce*. We know that it has been attempted in the French language, but we believe that it has never succeeded. Rules of this nature may be furnished to teachers; but young pupils, we suspect, must catch a proper pronunciation by the easiest and most natural method,—by the ear.

A cheaper edition of this work is also published, with some omissions, intended for the poorer classes; and printed on a paper and type which are very inferior to the former.

Art. 39. *The first Part of progressive Instructions*, in Reading, Grammar, and Geography; adapted to the Capacities of Children, from the age of three to eight or nine Years. By Mrs. Wilmshurst. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Conder.

The method here adopted for conveying to children some idea of Reading, Grammar, and Geography, may probably be found of use, but it does not appear to merit any particular notice or commendation.

Art. 40. *A Practical Guide to Parents and Guardians*, in the right Choice and Use of Books in every Branch of Education. By Joshua Collins, A.M. 12mo. 1s. Reynolds.

This little treatise is intended for the use of tutors and schoolmasters, who reside in distant parts of the country, and are supposed by Mr. Collins to be unable to procure information respecting the present state of school-literature *. If there be any such persons, however, as Mr. C. presumes, they must not rely on his recommendation in all points, though many useful tracts are named in his catalogue.—*Clarke's Introduction*, for instance, is no longer in use in our public schools.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 41. *A short and practical Account of the principal Doctrines of Christianity*; for the Use of Young Persons. To which are added suitable Prayers. By W. J. Rees, M. A., Curate of Stoke-Edith, Herefordshire. 12mo. pp. 43. 1s. Sael. 1803.

This little tract is composed in a style of commendable neatness and perspicuity, and comprehends much in a narrow compass. We see nothing in it that is redundant, nor does any necessary information connected with its design seem to have been omitted. The doctrines of the church are represented in a clear and amiable light, and happily connected with the moral duties:—the enthusiast will not impeach its orthodoxy; nor will the latitudinarian charge it with bigotry or intolerance. As a compendium of doctrines and duties, on the principles of the church of England, it is well adapted to be placed in the hands of young people; and it deserves, in this respect, the notice of persons of rank and influence in the church.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 42. *A Bibliographical Dictionary*; containing a Chronological Account, Alphabetically arranged, of the most curious, scarce, useful, and important Books in all Departments of Literature, which have been published in Latin, Greek, Coptic, Hebrew, Samaritan, Syriac, Chaldee, Æthiopic, Arabic, Persian, Armenian, &c. from the Infancy of Printing to the Beginning of the nineteenth Century. With Biographical Anecdotes, &c. &c. To which are added, an Essay on Bibliography, &c. and an Account of the best English Translation of each Greek and Latin Classic. Vol I. 12mo. 6s. Boards. (L. P. 9s.) Baynes. 1802.

* Does Mr. C. forget the existence of the Monthly Review?—What a negligent rogue!

We

We have here the commencement of a work which is expected to be comprised in six volumes, and which will contain much useful intelligence on a subject in which many persons feel considerable interest. We have examined several of the articles, and we think that the information communicated in them is in general accurate and amusing, particularly all that relates to the London Polyglott, and Dr. Castel's Lexicon Heptaglotton; which this author represents as 'probably the greatest and most perfect work of the kind ever performed by human industry and learning.' In the account of the Glasgow Eschylus, which was printed in folio in 1795, we observe the following passage: 'Only fifty-two copies of this edition, and of the large paper only eleven copies, are said to have been printed; they sell for 10l. 10s., and with the beautiful designs of Flaxman, which are executed in all the taste and spirit of antiquity, for 20l.' This statement we apprehend to be erroneous, because Mr. Flaxman's designs (which deserve all the praise here bestowed on them,) sell for one guinea, and therefore cannot increase the price of the Eschylus in the proportion here mentioned.—We shall be glad to direct our attention to the subsequent volumes of this publication, as they make their appearance.

Art. 43. *Three Discourses.* 1. On the Use of Books. 2. On the Result and Effects of Study. 3. On the Elements of Literary Taste. Delivered at the Anniversary Meetings of the Library Society at Chichester, January, 1800, 1801, 1802, by the President. 8vo. pp. 190. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

This little volume, which is the production (as we understand) of Dr. Sanden of Chichester, discovers various indications of a cultivated mind, and of a refined taste. The directions on the use of books, and of the mode of reading them with advantage, are in general very judicious, and, if adopted, must prove eminently serviceable; particularly to the younger class of students.—In the third essay, we are presented with many pertinent remarks on *taste*, a subject which is in itself surrounded with difficulties, and has received the attention of eminent writers. The present author considers the second of Dr. Blair's Lectures as a copious and elaborate commentary on the following passage in Cicero: "*Omnes enim, tacito quodam sensu, sine ulla arte aut ratione, quæ sint in artibus et rationibus recta et prava dijudicant;*" and he represents the discussion to be unsatisfactory and inconsistent. This censure, we think, is in part merited: but we are at the same time of opinion that the attempts of Dr. S. to elucidate the subject have not been more successful. In quoting the following beautifully domestic image from Lucretius,

> "*At jam non domus accipiet te læta, neque uxor*
> *Optuma, nec dulces occurrent oscula nati*
> *Præripere, et tacitâ pectus dulcedine tangent;*"

and noticing that it had been happily amplified by Gray, we are surprized that these lines in Thomson's Winter did not occur to the recollection of the author, as they are evidently suggested by the Latin Poet:

'In

"In vain for him th' *officious* wife prepares
The fire fair-blazing, and the vestment warm;
In vain his little children, peeping out
Into the mingling storm, demand their sire,
With tears of artless innocence. Alas!
Nor wife, nor children, more shall he behold,
Nor friends, nor sacred home."

The word officious is here used in its primitive though not most usual signification, of doing good offices. Milton, as Johnson observes, employs it in the same sense;

"Yet, not to earth are those bright luminaries
Officious; but to thee, earth's habitant."

It is observable that both the moderns have omitted the exquisite pathos belonging to the close of the original passage;

"*Et tacitâ pectus dulcedine tangent.*"

Art. 44. *The Spirit of the Public Journals* for 1801 and 1802. Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and *Jeux d'Esprits*, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With explanatory Notes and Anecdotes of many of the Persons alluded to. Vols. V. and VI. 12mo. pp. 396. in each. 12s. Boards. Ridgway.

Some gentlemen preserve their newspapers, and bind them in volumes; by which practice, they treasure materials for the history of the period through which their files of journals extend. Others cut out the scraps of prose or verse which are thought to have merit, and paste them into a common-place book. The compilations before us are not only intended to save this latter trouble, but, by being on a more extensive scale than is generally adopted, open a wider field of amusement. In our 31st and 36th vols. N. S. we noticed the former parts of this miscellany; and from the same sources, entertainment of a similar kind, as occasion offered, has again been drawn. The political squibs of the day are here impartially collected; and, in examining the poetry of these volumes, we were sometimes compelled to smile, however ill-adapted the muscles of Reviewers may be to such an exercise. Our wigs shook with approbation, as we read the following

'MODERN SONNET, TO AN OLD WIG.

'Hail thou! who liest so snug in this old box;
With sacred awe I bend before thy shrine!
Oh! 'tis not clos'd with glue, nor nails, nor locks,
And hence the bliss of viewing thee is mine.

'Like my poor aunt, thou hast seen better days!
Well curl'd and powder'd, once it was thy lot
Balls to frequent, and masquerades, and plays,
And panoramas, and the Lord knows what!

'Oh! thou hast heard e'en Madame *Mara* sing,
And oft-times visited my *Lord Mayor*'s treat;
And once, at court, wast notic'd by the *King*,
Thy form was so commodious, and so neat.

'Alas!

'Alas! what art thou now? a mere old mop!
With which our housemaid Nan, who hates a broom,
Dusts all the chambers in my little shop,
Then slyly hides thee in this lumber-room!

'Such is the fate of *wigs!* and *mortals* too!
After a few more years than thine are past,
The Turk, the Christian, Pagan, and the Jew,
Must all be shut up in a *box* at last!

'Vain *man!* to talk so loud, and look so big!
How small 's the difference 'twixt thee and a *wig!*
How small indeed! for speak the truth I must,
Wigs turn to *dusters*, and *man* turns to *dust.*'

The very high price of paper at the beginning of the year 1801 has occasioned some delay in the appearance of these volumes.

Art. 45. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting,* &c. Selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Originally published in nine Volumes; abridged in two. 8vo. pp. 760. in the two Vols. 17s. Boards. Robinsons.

Judicious abridgments are often useful and generally acceptable to the public. Collections of the Memoirs or Papers of philosophical, literary, or economical bodies, become in a course of years very voluminous; and the early numbers of the series are with difficulty obtained. New members, who are solicitous of possessing complete sets of the transactions of the society into which they have been admitted, find that the editions of the prior volumes are entirely sold, and that they cannot look for the gratification of their wishes from the regular supply of the book trade. We know how seldom the first ten volumes of our Old Series are now to be obtained; and it is equally rare to see perfect sets of the Philosophical Transactions. Even the Bath Agricultural Society, instituted no longer ago than in 1777, and having published only nine volumes since its commencement, complains of the difficulty of furnishing complete sets; and to avoid the expence of republishing the originals, the plan of abridgment has been undertaken. The anonymous editor informs us, that he has reduced 'the nine volumes into two, not by a partial selection of particular papers, but by preserving the substance of every one, rejecting only such parts of each as are uninteresting, without lessening the information, or altering the sense: every correspondent is allowed to tell his own tale in his own language; without the least affection, partiality, or prejudice.'

This mode of abbreviation, to which has been added a kind of classification, is unobjectionable; and, as the Bath Papers contain a mass of valuable information, (which we have regularly noticed*,) the labour here bestowed on them will not be thought useless. The type

* See our account of the first volume, in M. R. vol. lxiv. p. 417. O. S.; of the 4th volume, in M. R. vol. xxxi. p. 388, N. S.; and of each of the other in the intermediate volumes.

is smaller than that of the original volumes, which has assisted compression, and has enabled the editor to exhibit the substance of most of the papers. As a specimen of the degree of abbreviation, we may mention Dr. Anderson's Dissertation on Wool-bearing Animals in vol. viii. which occupies nearly forty pages, but which in the Abridgement is included in little more than seven.

We are of opinion that this undertaking would have been more complete and satisfactory, if, at the head of every abridged paper, the editor had referred to the original; thus, when the substance of Dr. Anderson's remarks is given in vol. i. p. 308, in a Section on *Cattle* and *Sheep, Breed, Wool,* &c. the reader should have been referred to the Original Papers, vol. viii. p. 1; and the same rule should have been adopted in every other instance. Many of the plates are retained.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 46. *An Antidote to the Alarm of Invasion:*—Delivered at the Meeting-House in the Old Jewry, October 19, 1803; being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S., Editor of the New Cyclopædia. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.

Never did the *amor patriæ* burn with a purer and brighter flame in the hearts of Britons, than at the present moment; and we have the sincerest pleasure in testifying the heroic devotedness which now electrifies all ranks, sects, and professions. The haughty defiance and threatened invasion of our Consular enemy have produced such an unanimity and exertion as, with the Divine blessing, must defeat his projects, and teach France and the other nations of Europe to respect our sacred shores. Being engaged in a war which is strictly just, we may without presumption hope for the protection of Heaven; and the fast-day, as affording a fair opportunity to the pulpit orator for displaying the merits of our cause, was no doubt peculiarly acceptable to the Clergy of all denominations. The sermon of Dr. Rees is the first which has been communicated to us; and its contents are of such a nature that we lose no time in announcing it to the public. A more virtuous patriotism, or a clearer view of the nature of the contest and of the character and views of the enemy, cannot be exhibited. Dr. R. not only displays with energy the important and invaluable objects which depend on the present contest, but encourages us to the most strenuous exertions, by shewing the advantages which are likely to result from its prosperous issue. It will prove us to be not unworthy of the glorious and distinguishing privileges which we enjoy; it will secure our country from future attacks; and it will make our commerce and agriculture revive under the best auspices. It may be presumed also that a gratitude for deliverance will incline us to fervent piety; and that the patriotic unanimity, which has now been displayed, will incline different parties in politics and religion to contemplate each other with less fear and jealousy. If such should be the consequences of the present war, *the wrath of Bonaparte* will be a greater blessing to Britain than his best smiles could have conferred.

Art.

Art. 47. *The Duty of Britons, at the present awful Crisis of their Country*,—preached August 7, 1803. By John Overton, A. M. Rector of St. Margaret and St. Crux, York. 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

Politics and Divinity are here blended together, as in most other discourses on the present occasion; and Mr. Overton has taken great pains to rouse us to a manful and pious resistance of the threatening foe. The fury of the enemy is said, 'like Nebuchadnezzar's furnace, to be heated against us "seven times more than it was wont to be heated," and, in a general view, 'to be one of the severest scourges with which an angry God has ever visited the world since the universal deluge.' Thus the preacher bids us to look our whole danger in the face; and with gratitude for past national mercies, which may be regarded as 'marks of some peculiar friendship of Heaven,' he calls on us to be valiant against sin; to persevere in prayer; and to display a cheerful submission to such pecuniary burdens, and other provisions, as are rendered necessary by the circumstances of the times.

Art. 48. *Sennacherib defeated, and his Army destroyed*;—preached at Wanstead, Essex, by the Rev. S. Glasse, D.D. F.R.S. Sept. 4, 1803. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This sermon is inscribed *to the Million of Loyal Volunteers*, and is intended to be the Soldier's Manual; displaying the national advantages of having a godly king, the necessity of uniting to the prayers of a righteous sovereign the devotion and exertions of his subjects, and the impotency of the greatest armies when opposed to those who are protected by the arm of the Lord.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Norwich, signed John Wagstaffe, in which the writer assures us that Dr. Walker, author of *Fragments*, reviewed in our last number, is 'not a member of the Society of Friends;' and this assertion is stated to be made on the authority of the Doctor himself. We cannot speak to this point, but certainly Dr. W.'s sentiments and peculiarities, as exhibited in that work, are those which distinguish this society of professing Christians.

The publications mentioned by *Græculus esuriens* have been accidentally overlooked; and it appears to us that it would now be going too far back to take up the controversy from its origin, and improper to notice only the more recent tracts relative to it.

Mr. R. Ogle is referred to our 36th vol. p. 372. for an answer to part of his letter. In due time, he will be satisfied on other points: but occasionally we must reserve a power of *omission*, for which we cannot render ourselves accountable.

Augustus and Mary, and *the Observant Pedestrian*, will not be forgotten.

☞ In the last *Appendix*, p. 524. l. 17. after 'Raphael,' insert—; p. 536. l. 21. for 'Khâtan Khou,' r. *Khâtou-Khan*. In the Number for September, p. 82. l. 12. for 'Johnson,' r. *Longman and Rees*.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1803.

ART. I. *A Tour, performed in the Years* 1795-6, *through the Taurida, or Crimea*, the antient Kingdom of Bosphorus, the once-powerful Republic of Taurîc Cherson, and all the other Countries on the North Shore of the Euxine, ceded to Russia by the Peace of Kainardgi and Jassy. By Mrs. Maria Guthrie, formerly Acting Directress of the Imperial Convent for the Education of the Female Nobility of Russia. Described in a Series of Letters to her Husband, the Editor, Matthew Guthrie, M.D. F.R.S. and F.S.A. of London and Edinburgh, Member of the Philosophical Society of Manchester, &c. &c. Physician to the First and Second Imperial Corps of Noble Cadets in St. Petersburgh, and Councillor of State to His Imperial Majesty of all the Russias. The Whole illustrated by a Map of the Tour along the Euxine Coast, from the Dniester to the Cuban; with Engravings of a great Number of Antient Coins, Medals, Monuments, Inscriptions, and other curious Objects. 4to. pp. 446. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

DR. Guthrie informs us that these letters were addressed to him in French, that he has translated them into English, and that he has added the notices relative to antient history, &c.: but he is not therefore warranted in considering himself as the sole object of criticism; since his share of responsibility is necessarily limited to the language, to the supplementary insertions, and to the duties of an editor. There is no occasion, however, for any apprehension on this score. If his lady (who is now an inmate of the silent grave) had executed her part of this joint performance with less success than she has done, we should have treated her with particular tenderness; for she professes to have recorded all her observations just as they arose, good, bad, and indifferent, merely for the amusement of her own family and friends. To Dr. G. we are obliged for having given them a wider range.

The first three letters from *Nicolayef*, on the Bog, are, like all that follow, without any date of time; an omission for which it is not easy to conjecture a sufficient reason, and for which none has been assigned.—Nicolayef, a new naval esta-

blishment, is represented as consisting of about 600 houses, forming eight long and broad streets, which intersect one another at right angles. The suburbs include 200 cottages and *semblankies*, or subterraneous dwellings, occupied by soldiers, sailors, and workmen. Though the town was founded only in 1789, the population, when Mrs. G. wrote, had amounted to 10,000 inhabitants of all descriptions. Notwithstanding some disadvantages of situation, it is preferred to Cherson as a dock-yard.

The indurated calcareous soil of the Scythian steppe, or desert, produces grass, but will require to be subdued, watered, and guarded from the licence of the roaming shepherds, before its boundless monotony can be relieved by the trees of the forest.

A visit to *Ovidopol* naturally suggested a description and drawing of a curious antique tomb, *ingeniously*, though (as we learn in the appendix) *erroneously* supposed to be that of Ovid. Proceeding eastward, along the coast of the Euxine, the fair traveller notices *Odessa*, another sea-port, rising under the imperial auspices, and destined for the reception of the Russian flotilla. This town is constructed of the same beautiful calcareous stone which abounds at Nicolayef. The writer's mind is again filled with Ovid, his exile, and his *Tristia*, on crossing the rivulets *Adjelik* and *Deligul*,—according to Peyssonnel, the *Benius* and *Lycus* of the amorous bard.—*Ochakoff*, the *Odessus* of antiquity, recalls the story of Anacharsis, as related in the 4th book of Herodotus.

In the ninth letter, we have this account of *Cherson*:

'You will perceive, by the date of this letter, how far I am on my way to the famous Crimea, or Taurida, so long the object of my curiosity, and, indeed, one of the principal motives to my journey, after the great and leading one of the re-establishment of my health. I must own, my good friend, after feeling the advantage that I have already derived from this Southern Tour, I am not surprised that the ladies of antiquity ran after Apollo; for I frankly confess, (and I hope you will not be jealous,) that I follow him with pleasure, and do not intend soon to quit the pursuit.—Surely living so many years as we have done amid the snows of the North, is a good excuse for this heathenish taste.

'The new Russian Cherson, where we now are, is situated, as you know, at a great distance from the old Grecian city of that name in the Taurida, on the right bank of the Dnieper, or Borysthenes, about 15 versts above its mouth, and 10 below where the Inguletz falls into it. It is a handsome town, with a number of fine public buildings, docks, magazines, &c. and a port well frequented by ships trading this way.

'The untimely fate of the able engineer (Brigadier General Korsakoff) to whose zeal and talents Cherson owes the most of its for-

tlfications and other public works, is still fresh in the minds of the inhabitants, who bewail his loss: he was killed by falling over a precipice in a dark night, and thereby cut short in a brilliant career, at an early period of life.

'This city is, however, rendered still more memorable, as containing all that was mortal of the philanthropic Howard, who ended here his extraordinary progress, together with a long life passed in continued acts of humanity and beneficence, which did much honour to himself, while they threw a lustre on his native country, England. Many will envy the worthy Admiral Mordwinoff the honour of having erected a monument to the memory of this friend of mankind, and the satisfaction of engraving on his tomb, *Here lies the benevolent Howard.*—Here he fell a martyr to the same putrid fever which he had banished from so many prisons in Great Britain and Ireland, while on his way to Turkey, whither his exalted courage in the cause of suffering humanity was leading him, to combat prejudice and the plague, the two most formidable enemies of man. Happy would it be for the world, if British eccentricity often took so useful a turn!

'Till very lately, as was observed in my Letter from Nicolayef, this city was the seat of naval architecture for the Euxine, and the residence of a great number of men belonging to the naval establishment; but it was found so very unhealthy in the months of July and August, during the prevalence of a pestiferous wind, which comes charged with *putrid miasma*, generated by the great heats in the low grounds to the left of the Dnieper, which are regularly overflowed every spring, when the river is swelled with melted snow and ice; I say, it was found so unhealthy at this season, that the loss in men became a national object, even independent of considerations of humanity; and it was abandoned for Nicolayef; yet not entirely, as the docks are still left for building ships, where two of 74 * are now on the stocks. The necessary garrison is likewise left; and, as the profits of trade are considerable, I scarcely need add, that the unhealthy Cherson is not abandoned by the merchants, who, we see, brave all climates, and all extremes of temperature, where profit invites; but, indeed, those very gains enable them to evade the fatal blast, by quitting the city during its baneful influence, and leaving their seasoned clerks to transact the business. The heat is quite insupportable, in the day-time, for two or three months of the year, while the evenings and nights are remarkably cool: an extraordinary phenomenon, which certainly assists the putrid miasma in producing that fatal remittent of this country which laid the all-powerful Prince Potemkin in the dust, with so many thousands of the army that he commanded, and much more terrible to Russia than the Turkish cimeter, which her cannon and boigenetes keep at a distance.

'* The whole Russian navy of the Euxine was built at Cherson, except one ship of 90 guns at Nicolayef, and some frigates at Taganrok on the Maotis: the rest are Turkish prizes.'

'It is about 150 versts higher up this river, that Her Imperial Majesty has planted a small French colony of Emigrant nobility; but I am afraid, that, although the banks of the Borysthenes still preserve the fertility for which they were noted in days of yore, they are equally subject, from the same cause, to the fatal remittent fever which depopulates Cherson; and that the unhappy gentlemen who fled hither from death and destruction at home, will meet it, with equal certainty, in the Wilds of Scythia *, unless you indicate to them some preservation against the threatening evil; which would be an act of great humanity, and much oblige Yours, &c.'

The route along the Dnieper to *Bereslave*, the *Trajectus Crassi* of the antients, is mostly solitary and dismal. Mrs. G. thus accounts for the frequent appearance of conic tumuli on the Tartaric plains:

'Some people contend that they are not tombs, but hillocks formed by the ashes thrown out of the Tartar tents while encamped on the spot; which is a fact, and a very wise measure too, as, by making the graves of their companions the bases of these conic hillocks, they prevent putrid exhalations, while they raise a rude monument to departed friends without either trouble or expence: a practice of the most remote antiquity, and which may very probably be the origin of the conic form which their tombs preserved in all the parts of Europe, &c. whither conquest and emigration led the swarms from Tartary recorded by so many authors: even those who have embraced the religion of Mahomet preserve this ancient usage, as walking over the grave of a Musselman is a species of profanation, and a little mount of earth is always raised on it, to prevent such an accident, even out of the deserts of Scythia, although I suspect that the custom took its origin there.'

Directing her steps across the deserts of the Nogay Tartars, where not a single object presents itself to cheer the wearied eye, or revive the drooping spirits, Mrs. G. made her next halt at *Péricop*.

As the 15th letter presents a striking sketch of the geography of the Crimea, we shall insert it entire:

'The Taurida lies between 44° 17′ and 46° 7′ of North latitude, and between 50° 10′ and 54° 23′ of East longitude (reckoning from the island of Ferro), according to the latest and best Russian map, made from a careful survey since the peninsula became a part of the Empire.

'It is about 85 versts, or 56⅔ English miles, *long*, from Perecop in a right line South to the port of Balaklava on the Euxine; and

* 'This female prophecy has since been but too well verified; all of these noblemen having been attacked by the fatal fever, and several fallen martyrs to it already; among these, are the Counts Choisseul and D'Ailcourt, Mr. de Mico, &c. who died before proper medical assistance arrived at the colony.'

about

about 300 verstes, or 200 miles, *broad*, from cape Tarkanskoi projecting into the Black Sea on the Western coast, to the city of Jenikal on the Cimmerian Bosphorus, or Straits, which divide the Taurida from the island of Taman.

'The large river Salgir nearly divides the peninsula into two equal parts; and, most conveniently for the geographer who wishes to describe it, separates the saline grassy stept, or plain, on the North, (which has apparently been occupied in all ages by Scythians and their flocks,) from the fine mountainous country to the South, the admiration and abode of polished commercial nations for upwards of two thousand years, who filled its ports with ships and merchandize, till the barbarous Turks shut up the Thracian Bosphorus, and turned the busy Euxine into a watery desert.

'But, what is truly surprising is, that these two districts, thus accidentally separated by the river Salgir, are as different in climate, soil, and productions, as two countries widely distant from each other; a cold bleak winter often prevailing in the stept exposed to N. E. winds, which sweep the whole plain, without a tree or hillock to break their force; at the same time that the weather in the Southern vallies is mild and agreeable, and the fields are covered with flowers; so that these two natural divisions must absolutely be described separately.

'The Northern half, then, from the Salgir up to the place where I am now writing, is a level uniform plain without tree or hillock, which the sea seems to have formerly covered, and on retiring left its cavities full of salt water, now the Salt Lakes, its greatest riches and principal revenue. These, however, may probably still communicate with the sea.

'But, independent of the store of salt contained in these natural reservoirs, the sea has likewise left so strong an impregnation of that mineral in many other parts of the plain (more particularly on the shores, and the banks of the lakes, where the earth is constantly kept saturated with it, that nothing will grow but plants that delight in salt; which, however, afford excellent pasture for horses, wool-bearing animals, and, above all, for dromedaries and camels. But, notwithstanding this uncommon alliance between the Tauric stept and the ocean, which makes it promise so little to agriculture, in places where the salt has been washed out by rain and mountain floods, corn has been reared in great quantities, so as to have rendered the Taurida the granary of the Euxine, till the late wars banished or destroyed such a number of the inhabitants, that the lands now lie uncultivated, and will continue so till the known toleration of Russia, joined to wise regulations for the production of new settlers, shall repeople the famous Chersonese, which will one day be a brilliant gem in the Imperial diadem.

'I shall finish this hasty sketch of the low and level part of the Taurida, by remarking, that it is as sultry and even scorching in summer, as it is bleak and cold in winter, and from the same cause in both seasons, *viz.* a want of shelter; while the water is of course brackish in the saline grounds.

'To my Map I refer you for the rivers, and every thing else here omitted; though, in coming back this way, I do not intend passing any object without notice.

'The Southern half begins gradually to rise from the Salgir into a ridge of calcareous mountains, the whole breadth of the greater peninsula, till it reaches the lesser, of Kerch, which is a diminutive plain, comparatively with the one that I have been describing, that makes a kind of wing to the Taurida, and runs Eastward to the Cimmerian Bosphorus.

'Between this first, or calcareous chain, and a second of high schistous or slaty mountains, which border the Southern shore, lie some of the most charming temperate vallies to be found in any country, enjoying the climate and productions of Europe; while beyond them, that is, between these last mountains and the Euxine, are situated another range of vallies, still warmer, which boast the climate and fruits of Asia Minor, and where, in the opinion of Pallas, even the delicate orange might flourish without fear of winter frost.

'To these curious varieties of climate and soil (occasioned by local causes) in so short a distance as 85 versts, from Perecop to the Southern shore, which may teach geographers not to judge of climate, in their studies, merely from latitude and longitude, I shall only add here a few peculiarities in the natural history of the peninsula, as more will appear in the course of my Letters, when I shall come to treat of particular places. Granite, the common basis of mountains, is wanting in those of the Taurida, which are entirely made up of what commonly constitutes the second and third orders; nay, what is still more extraordinary, not only is every trace of metals wanting in them, but even the ordinary matrices of the precious metals, granite, feltspath, and gneis, with the micaceous and horny slate, or schistus, are not to be found here; while the Tauric quartz does not contain a particle of metal of any kind.

'The vallies, and ravins cut out by torrents in the Tauric mountains (the only beds of rivers in this country), are always either scooped out in the argillaceous schistus, or in the soft and mouldering breccia, which compose so great a part of them; while the petrifications contained in those mountains are confined to the calcareous rocks, or sandy slate, and are all foreign shells, *not found in the surrounding seas;* a sure proof of great antiquity.

'As to the botany of the Tauric plain (for I shall afterwards have occasion to mention the plants of the hills and vallies), it is nearly as simple and uniform as that of the plains between the Don and the Volga, described by Pallas; a few species of centaury making the only difference; one of which is the principal food of the Tauric sheep; but, as we are summoned to dinner, I shall make an end of my curiosities and my Letter, with assuring you that I am, &c.'

The saline plains which extend from Pérécop to *Eupatoria* (lately *Kosloff*) on the Euxine, are passed over with merited rapidity.

'The

'The fortune of war,' observes the journalist, 'has much reduced this place [Eupatoria] if it was as considerable as is pretended in the time of the Tartar government; which I rather doubt, from its port being inferior to many others in the peninsula; although, no doubt, the exportation of the salt ready crystallized on its lakes, as in the saline plain of yesterday, must always have employed a certain quantity of shipping, being an article in great demand on the opposite or South Coast of the Euxine, for reasons which I shall give when I come to treat of the Fisheries. Leather made here is likewise exported in considerable quantities, together with the produce of an old Tartar fabric of woollen carpets, well worth the inspection of travellers, as it seems to be a Scythian manufactory still in its first stage of invention; for I cannot suppose it introduced even by the first foreign settlers the Greeks, as they certainly were more advanced, even at that early period, than what this patriarchal art would indicate, if Homer did not weave in his brain the beautiful *webs* with which his poems are adorned; for the art of weaving has not yet reached the city of Eupatoria, as may be judged from the following account.

'These carpets are still made of two or three layers of combed wool, placed above one another, and made to adhere merely by pressure and moisture, without the aid of the loom; nay, the honest Tartars of Eupatoria are even so far from taking advantage of modern discoveries in mechanics, that, instead of effecting this adhesion by the pressure of cylinders, it is done, as in the time of the Patriarchs, by treading them under foot for a few hours; nay, even when they are to be adorned with flowers, the texture is still the same, which gives an idea of the Tartar progress in the arts at the end of the 18th century.

'In short, these primitive carpets, parents of the famous *Gobelins*, offer an interesting scale of comparison between the art in its infancy, as still to be seen in Eupatoria, and in the celebrated manufactory of France. It is likewise worthy of remark, that they are still made here exactly in the same manner as the thick felt stuff called wylock, with which the round Scythian tents were covered in the time of Herodotus, and are to this day under the name of Kabitkies.'

On approaching *Symphéropol*, the capital of Taurida, the dreariness of the desert gave place to beautiful verdant fields, watered by the *Salgir*, and charmingly diversified by a variety of surface and patches of trees.—Romantic scenery still accompanied our traveller to *Batcheserai*, the antient capital of the Taurida, the supposed *Palátium* of Strabo, and the *Badatium* of Ptolemy. Like all Tartar towns, its streets are ill paved, narrow, and very dirty. Yet here we are agreeably surprized by a most picturesque *coup d'œil*:

'Only figure to yourself, my good friend, in a deep valley bounded by a huge chain of pendant rocks, an assemblage of Tartar houses of uncouth forms, stuck as it were against the sides of the moun-

taine, and placed in circles one above another, round the palace of their Chan (situated at the bottom of the valley), so as to represent a large amphitheatre, or rather funnel, with streets between the rows of houses; a form of a city as novel as it is curious and romantic; which you will suppose when I tell you that the whole is surmounted by a tremendous fringe of enormous rocks cut out, by mountain torrents, into strange grotesque figures hanging over the houses, and threatening, to appearance, instant destruction to the peaceable inhabitants below.

'Here you may fancy that you see a high antique tower, the work of former ages, frowning over the city, threatening to destroy in its fall what it seems to have been once destined to defend; there you may imagine an immense obelisk, raised to commemorate some antient Scythian victory, possibly the retreat of Darius, or Philip, before their Nomade ancestors. In short, a warm and lively imagination might fancy a hundred such forms and objects in this rude and gigantic assemblage of figures, cut out by the great sculptors of the universe, air and water.

'The palace, which, as said before, rises in the middle of this curious Tauric city, to add greatly to the singularity and romantic appearance of the scene, is a curious species of painted Chinese structure, well suited to such a group of oddities.

'To describe its external form, a traveller must be acquainted with the language of oriental architecture, being too different from ours to admit of European *technicals*; and as I am neither sufficiently read in the writings of Sir William Chambers, nor in Arabian story*, to attempt a description, I shall content myself with assuring you, that the inside is still more singular than the outside; and that, without the clue of Ariadne, she must be a sorceress indeed who finds her way out, when once fairly entered in this Scythian labyrinth, which might vie with that of Crete, or any other in antiquity.

'It does not, however, want a kind of oriental magnificence, where the Eastern luxury of the harum has not been forgotten, calculated, like the Geneceon of the Greeks, to cut off all communication between the apartments of the men and women; and solely destined for the abode and amusement of the fair sex, who have been left in all ages and countries to languish by themselves, except in the assemblies of modern Europe; and, let me tell you, it is to this happy union that modern society owes all its charms and all its acquired advantages; for, without us, you are but a sort of taciturn bears when the glass is from your lips.

'We enter this princely residence by a spacious court, and are struck, in passing through it, with a view of the garden on one hand, hanging on the brow of a hill in form of terraces, like the antient gardens of Semiramis in Babylon, or those on the mountains

'* There is, I believe, no book existing, which contains so much information on oriental customs, gardening, and even architecture, as the Arabian Nights Entertainments; a valuable relict of the once polished, learned, and magnificent Saracens.'

of

of Egyptian Thebes. On the other hand, the time-sculptured rocks, mentioned above, confine and adorn the prospect; while in the court itself you find a handsome mosque with a lofty elastic spire, that shakes like a tree under you whilst you view the whole city from its lofty summit. This seems to be the very ornament that the Saracens introduced into Europe, so common on the cathedrals of the Middle Ages under the name of *Gothic*, though for what reason I cannot imagine, unless a want of the trembling lightness of the Arabian minaret bespeaks a Gothic architect. It may be necessary to add, that this is not merely an ornament, but a useful appendage to the Mahometan temples (or Metchets, as mosques are called) in the Taurida; for, although they use no bells, a crier announces from the minaret, the stated hours for prayers, which are attended by *mussulmen* with a regularity that might put christians to the blush, especially at the end of the 18th century; when a religion evidently calculated for the happiness of civil society, is more or less neglected every where, and entirely thrown aside by one great nation, who seem foolish enough to think that a mighty empire may exist without any: a new maxim equally unknown to antients and moderns, and which seems the height of phrenzy to Yours, &c.'

The next direct stage led through a pleasant mountainous country to *Sebastapol*, the principal port of the Black Sea. The most remarkable objects in its neighbourhood are the Convent of St. George, the vestiges of the temple of the Tauric Diana at *Parthenium*, and *Balaklava*, the *Portus Symbolon* of Strabo, now reduced to about 400 houses, and chiefly inhabited by an unfortunate colony of Albanian refugees, who have dwindled from 3000 to 1500.

'It is really distressing to hear the survivors lament the unhappy fate of their friends and relations, cut off by an unknown enemy, which pours out death and disease from a hidden source; which all are equally exposed to, although persons born on the spot resist it much better than their parents, the first settlers, who have suffered so much; and still even this second generation has but a sickly look. The deadly vapour so destructive here seems to be *a* putrid marsh *miasma*, the same pestiferous blast that chased the hardy Russian troops from the modern Cherson, and which will soon put to flight, or lay in the grave, the little French colony of noblemen planted on the banks of the Dnieper.'

As a counterpart to this melancholy picture, we transcribe the 35th letter:

'I date this letter from the lovely valley of Baydar, called by the natives the *Tauric Arcadia*, the *Crimean Tempé*, &c. and by every fond name that rural enthusiasm can suggest to the enraptured visitors of this fairy retreat. For my own part, I acknowledge myself among those who prefer the Tauric to the Thessalian Tempé, even admitting the flowery descriptions of Pliny and Ælian, without ill-naturedly contrasting them with those of Livy and Ovid; an unnecessary severity in the cause of Baydar, whose real beauties far

surpass the poetic charms of the classic Tempé, were I even to conceal a material difference between them; viz. that while the harsh and noisy *Peneus* roars through the first, inspiring nothing but terror, Baydar is watered by two gentle murmuring streams, which excite pleasure and delight.

'I thought that I had already seen every charming and every sportive decoration of nature in the lovely vallies of this peninsula; but all are obliterated and eclipsed at the first glance of the pastoral Baydar, which well deserves to be sung by a Theocritus, a Virgil, or a Thomson; a truth of which I am so firmly convinced, that I am almost resolved not to attempt its description in frigid prose. However, as ladies' resolutions are not always so fixed as the laws of the Medes and Persians *, and as I really find myself too big with this arcadia to carry it any farther, I must tell you here all that we saw; and lucky you are to obtain a glimpse without coming at it, on horseback, as we did, over dreadful precipices, which would frighten any thing but a Tartar horse; but my poney jogged along the rugged path as if on an English turnpike-road, while I was glad to shut my eyes, to avoid growing giddy in looking down on this Tauric elysium.

'Can you transport yourself, with me, into a heavenly valley, of an oval form, about 20 miles long, and surrounded by high mountains, covered with beautiful woods; where many kinds of wild fruit, mixed with odoriferous flowering shrubs, adorn the green ramparts which cut off all communication with the vicious world?

'The innocent inhabitants of this Tauric Arcadia are not mere shepherds and shepherdesses of the poets' creation; but really such in the true pastoral sense of the word; many of the latter never were beyond their native mountains, and probably will pass the remainder of their harmless lives without ever quitting this quiet and tranquil retreat.

'A number of Tartar villages are situated most romantically in this fine valley. Here, you see their rustic cottages stuck as it were against the sides of the mountains, and peeping out of hanging orchards; there, out of irregular clumps of fine trees planted by nature on the banks of the two limpid streams that water as they wind through the Tauric Tempé. In short, I will tell you in one sentence, that you must visit the valley of Baydar, to feel all the effect that these objects are calculated to produce, when animated by the view of flocks, shepherds, and husbandmen, all around you; the latter cultivating their fairy abode, which well repays their labour with abundant crops, fully adequate to the few wants of these truly pastoral Tartars.

'Would you believe it? My sensations were in such a train, as to excite an idea that the rude Tartar pipe was melodious here, which

'* A late author (I forget whom) accounts most satisfactorily for the antient reputation of *stability* in the laws of the Medes and Persians, by telling us, that those people were the first who had a written code; while other nations were governed by uncertain and floating laws.'

had

had so often made me stop my ears elsewhere; but whether this was not partly owing to these piping shepherds being from constant practice better performers, and partly to the fine echo of the mountains, returning a softened sound, I will not take upon me to determine; but I insist on the fact, that the rude Tartar tube of Baydar might dispute the prize, in its own delightful valley, even with the Bucolic pipe of Theocritus, which won the crook of Lycidas.

'It is by passing through this living landscape that you arrive at the little town of Baydar, which has the honour of giving its name to the lovely valley, and has certainly nothing else to boast of; however, the lovers of ruins and of conjecture may here find full scope for both, in the vast remains of an antient structure that cover the ground near the modern town. I must own, that my imagination was instantly at work, and my eyes diligently employed in searching for some inscription, or other certain mark, whereby to discover the position of one of those antient cities so loosely described by the Greek and Roman geographers as to elude all modern search; such as the Porosta, Postigia, Bæum, and Iluratum of Ptolemy, the Chavis of Strabo, and Dia of Pliny; but all to no purpose; as I found nothing to convince either myself or any body else.

'I must therefore leave the ruins of Baydar just as wise as I came to them, and content myself with telling you what I *did* find; viz. a little purling rill arising from a copious spring, which, after murmuring through a part of these antique ruins, as if mourning their fall, carries its rich tribute to the inhabitants of the *new* town, as formerly bestowed on the *old*, which, however, it still constantly visits in passing, to teach ungrateful man never to abandon a fallen friend. Adieu, my good Sir; and let me assure you, that if the romantic convent of St. George almost enticed me to turn nun, the enchanting valley of Baydar is still more dangerous; so that, if I do not quickly fly this fairy retreat, you must not be surprised at receiving, one of these days, a letter, from Maria the Taurie shepherdess.'

Having reached the southern extremity of the Peninsula, our fair traveller slowly prosecuted her journey eastward, along a fruitful coast, once the seat of numerous Greek cities, and chiefly consisting of semicircular vallies, which terminate at the bottom of an extended Alpine range. The lofty plains of the latter rival those of Andalusia in rearing a breed of sheep, celebrated for the fineness of their fleece.

Of *Soudak*, the *Citæum* of Ptolemy, we are told that it had an archbishop as early as 786, and, in the zenith of its splendour, 'possessed some *hundred* churches, with a great variety of nations and sects within its walls.' This once-flourishing city now exists only in ruins; yet its surrounding beauties have survived the waste of time and tyranny:

'But of all the singular spots of this curious country, the romantic environs of Soudak are among the most remarkable, and well calculated

236 exhibited to form a Salvator Rosa, a Claude Lorrain, or a Poussin; for surely the artist might here find the studies, if he brought with him the genius, of those great painters. On one side, you have fine mountains, covered with wood and verdure, terminating in cool and shady groves of delicious fruit, which slope down from the sides of the hills, to adorn the vallies. On the other, black weather beaten rocks; which, from the destructible nature of the mountain (composed of argillacious slate, sand-stone, and soft Breccia), present more various forms than, possibly, all the three great masters above mentioned ever beheld.

'But if any one should happen to stroll out, as I did, into the delightful vallies near the city, in a clear moon-light night, what a new creation of monsters will arise to their astonished sight! objects which even Brydone's Sicilian never thought of, joined to the whole range of gothic architecture, with spires, turrets, &c. Indeed, my good friend, although I have been so much amused in several parts of the Taurida, especially at Batcheserai and here, with the grotesque figures of the *time-sculptured rocks* as I have named them, infinitely various and picturesque, from the facility with which they are decomposed; yet, if I had a talent for landscape-painting, I doubt whether I should have courage to present the world with all the various fantastic forms that they assume in this romantic peninsula; lest your critics, who judge of every thing from what they have seen themselves, though, probably, never out of the sound of their own parish-bell, should discover a new genus of bouncers, and add bouncing painters to the old list of bouncing travellers.

'Seriously speaking, however, although the public are perfectly right in adopting with much caution new facts in natural history; yet, scepticism in every thing seems to have become a kind of fashion of late years; insomuch that it is thought to give an appearance of superior judgement and sagacity to men of the bon ton; while it is certainly by much the easiest way of getting rid of all inquiry and discussion in difficult cases, to declare yourself decidedly a sceptic on the subject; by which the whole matter is at once settled, without discovering your ignorance.

'This reflection has been more particularly suggested to my mind by the hard treatment of the late James Bruce, Esq. who, after having travelled many years at his own expence, and penetrated into Abyssinia at the hazard of his life, to enlarge our knowledge on several subjects, was received as an impostor * on his return to Britain;

* The late James Bruce, Esq. of Kinnaird, a gentleman of independent fortune, and his Majesty's Consul General on the coast of Barbary, seems to have owed the ill reception he received in England to stories invented by some French travellers from Egypt, who probably were jealous of the attention paid him by their sovereign Louis XV. (who sent him instruments on his setting out) and of the pompous manner in which their great naturalist, Buffon, announced his coming back to Europe, and the obligations that Natural History owed to his labours. EDITOR.'

tain; and we should have been for ever deprived of his valuable and instructive work, had not the principal facts on which your pretended critics founded their disbelief of his veracity been most accidentally authenticated by Indian merchants just arrived from Abyssinia, who appeared on a cause tried before the great oriental scholar Sir William Jones, late Judge of Bengal.

'Such a reception, I say, ought to make us travellers particularly careful how we relate strange things from strange countries, especially strange *customs*, although they should even be as old as the time of the Patriarchs, and have been forbidden by an express law of Moses *.

'You need be under no apprehension, however, from my boldness, as I shall neither attempt Tauric landscapes nor Abyssinian dinners; but, in conformity to the injunction of the Jewish legislator, go quietly to eat a *killed* beef-stake, and bid you adieu.'

Of the letters dated from *Caffa*, or *Theodosia*, another city fallen from its greatness, the most interesting is that which relates to the sale of the Circassian girls. If the author's reflections on this shocking practice are little to the honour of our species, they are at least somewhat consolatory, and bespeak a mind which is accustomed to calculate the influence of circumstances on different states of society.

That we may not wander beyond our usual limits, we pass in silence the modern ghosts of several fair cities indicated by Ptolemy, Arrian, and the Nubian geographer, no longer illustrated by the opulence and animation which result from liberty and trade; with the reasons assigned for the formation of recent strata on the shores of the Euxine; and the curious account of the mud explosions at *Taman*.

From the latter place, the antient *Phanagoria*, our entertaining journalist measured back her way to *Kerch*, formerly *Panticapeos* or *Bosphorus*: but which, in its present state, affords little that is worthy of remark. From this point to *Old Crim* (*Cimmerium*), the country is highly romantic, but in other respects uninteresting.

At *Karasubazar*, probably the *Pertacra* of Ptolemy, there exists an elegant *sudatorium*, which is still used as a perspiring bath:

'The other object of attention in this city is, an antient Manufactory of Morocco Leather, of which they make large quantities from the skins of the numerous flocks of Tauric goats:

'They begin the process by cleaning the skins in the following manner. After having steeped some raw hides in cold water for twenty-four hours, to free them from blood and other impurities,

* See Mr. Bruce's Defence against his chimney-corner antagonists.'

the

the fleshy parts are scraped off with proper instruments. They are next macerated for ten days in cold lime-water, to loosen the hair, which is likewise scraped off as clean as possible.

'For fifteen days they lie in clean cold water, and then are worked under foot in a succession of clean waters; the last being impregnated with dog's dung, to loosen the hair still more; when they receive a second scraping, and are drained of their humidity; which finishes the cleaning process.

'They now proceed to what they call feeding the skins, by steeping them four days in a cold infusion of wheat bran; then in a decoction of honey and water, twenty-eight pounds to five pails, cooled down to the temperature of new milk; out of which they are put under press into a vessel with holes at the bottom to let the liquor escape. They are, lastly, steeped four days in a light solution of salt and water, one pound to five pails; this finishes the preparation; and the leather is now ready to receive the dye.

'A strong decoction of artemisa annua, or southernwood, in the proportion of four pounds to ten pails of water, seems to be the basis of all the different colours that they give to the Morocco in the Taurida, Astracan, and the other cities formerly belonging to the Tartar empire, where the secret has remained till now.

'When a red colour is intended, a pound of cochineal in powder is gradually stirred into ten pails of the fine yellow decoction of artemisa, and boiled up in it for half an hour, with five or six drachms of alum, and poured on the leather in a proper vessel. They are next worked under-feet in an infusion of oak leaves in warm water, till they become supple and soft; when they are finally rinsed in cold water, then rubbed over with olive oil, and callendered with wooden rollers; which finishes the manufacture.

'The yellow Morocco is dyed with the decoction of artemise alone; only stronger, twenty pounds of it to fifteen pails being the proportion when used without other admixture; but two pounds of alum in fine powder, is gradually added, by half a table-spoonful at a time; and with this each skin is twice stained before the last operations of oiling and callendering.

'It is, however, necessary to remark, that there is a little difference in the preparation of the skins for receiving the pure yellow dye described above; as neither honey nor salt are used; but, instead of them, the hides are steeped for two days in an infusion of oak-leaves, (immediately after being taken out of the infusion of bran wherein they must have lain four,) and then worked under feet for a few hours of two days; next rinsed in cold water, and placed one above another on poles, to drain off the water and make them ready for staining.

'This is all the certain information that I have been able to obtain on this curious subject; for I can by no means depend on the vague reports that I have heard, relative to the colouring matter added for staining the *green* and *blue* kinds of Morocco; so that I prefer leaving you in the same uncertainty, to giving as facts what I cannot myself depend upon.'

For

For some curious particulars relative to the excentric Mr. Willis, and for notices of Tauric character, customs, manners, &c. &c. we must refer our readers to the book itself.

Mrs. G.'s return over the desert tracts to Nicolayef is, unavoidably, barren of interesting remark: yet, even during this retrograde and unpromising portion of her travels, we find her bestowing particular attention on the preparation of the *koumis* (or sour cow's milk) and the construction of Scythian tents.

At Nicolayef, she was detained during the winter, from want of cold to render the roads practicable in a sledge: but she appears to have passed much of her time in very enviable society.

'As to your most respectable old friend Admiral Mordwinoff, you know better than I can tell you the uprightness of his mind, and the suavity of his manners; but as your fair countrywoman, his lady, never accompanies her husband to Peterburgh, although so well entitled in every respect to appear at court, some account of that interesting fair-one I am sure will be acceptable; and I will begin it by assuring you, that she seems to have been intended by nature for the worthy Admiral, to whom by fortune she has been united.

'The entire pleasure and happiness of this ornament of her sex seems to consist in her fine family and domestic duties; for she really appears above the little vanity of etiquette and precedency attached to her situation and rank, as wife of the Commander in Chief of the fleets on the Black Sea; behaving to every one with that noble simplicity of manner, and native unaffected politeness, which ever spring from a cultivated mind and sound judgment.

'The influence that the example of chiefs has on the manners and morals of a rising colony, is finely illustrated at Nicolayef in many respects; but it struck me most forcibly at the Admiral's public assemblies; where I observed, that every lady seemed to vie with her neighbour, who should appear there with the greatest neatness and simplicity of dress, to be in uniformity with the charming mistress of the house, who always presides in a plain linen or cotton gown, more ornamented by her native graces and distinguished urbanity, than by all the ruinous finery so common every where else in Russia, but which the example of this worthy couple has banished from the settlement entrusted to their care, to the great relief of the inhabitants (mostly in the service of government), who are thereby enabled to live comfortably on their pay, although very inadequate to support luxury at the end of the 18th century, however ample it may have been in the time of Peter I. the great founder of the military, naval, and civil establishments.

'There is one material want most evident in this new colony; and that is of ladies, if I may judge from the number of suitors for the hand of the young woman who left her attendance on our children to accompany me in my journey.

'The

'The amiable Lady Mordwinof, who is so much above all petty prejudices, having insisted on her dining at table, she was courted alternately by three officers, and married the last who entered the lists (I verily believe) because he was an Englishman, as she had a liking to your country, and spoke the language.

'Thus you see, my good friend, that the liberality of mind of my fair hostess, and the scarcity of females in Nicolayef, has left me to return alone to St. Petersburg, if I can find no one to supply the place of Mrs. Young, for that is her new name; but, instead of being offended at Cupid for playing me such a trick, I am, on the contrary, thankful that he did not draw his bow before my Tour to the Taurida; and I console myself with contemplating the happiness of the young couple.

'Do not, however, be alarmed at the idea of my travelling unattended, as the Admiral has appointed an officer, a serjeant, and a soldier, to see me safe to my own house; so that only a female is wanting; and, if I can do no better, I shall take with me a sailor's wife, who now acts as waiting-woman.'

To the above outline and extracts, we have only to add that, if this tourist displays no uncommon depth of observation nor brilliancy of description, her letters uniformly breathe good humour, good sense, and an engaging ease and liveliness of manner. The union of these qualities in a lady condemned to struggle with the hardships incident to a tedious journey, to absence from her dearest relatives, and to confirmed indisposition, commands at once our surprize and esteem. The cheerless expanse of the Tartar desert, and provinces desolated by ages of despotism, are alike unfriendly to profound research, and to rich or vivid painting.—Mrs. G. has not wholly overlooked a few of the most striking physical phænomena which occurred to her observation: but she has judiciously reserved the enumeration and description of natural productions, for the elaborate pages of Professor Pallas, whose travels will shortly solicit our attention.

We should now attempt an analysis of such parts of the present volume as have been furnished by the editor, in the form of additional letters, a supplement, and an appendix: but the article is already extended to a sufficient length; and these extra pieces chiefly relate to subjects of antiquity, such as the colonization and commerce of the shores of the Euxine, Tauric medals, sepulchral Bosphoric monuments, &c. without adding much to the information which may be extracted from former writers. The 99th letter, on the *Hyberboreans*, is certainly ingenious, and, in some respects, novel.—The identity of the *Bog* and *Axiacus* is also noticed with singular propriety; because it is a geographical truth not generally admitted. Peyssonnel, if we rightly recollect, suggested the arguments.

The

The professed antiquary will not refuse to Dr. G. very respectable pretensions to patience and learning; and even the general scholar may derive amusement or instruction from his copious medallic illustrations. In our opinion, however, the letters of his deceased lady would have appeared to more advantage in a separate form. The subjoined materials, announced with pomp, and discussed with phlegm, might easily have formed a continuation of the "Russian Antiquities," or have added a few memoirs to the Transactions of the Antiquarian Society: but they do not well accord with the simple and popular observations of a female traveller.

Accustomed as we are to the vanity of authors, we were more diverted than surprized at the minute complacency with which the Doctor quotes his own writings. As he professes to have supplied the details concerning the antient state of the places described, we may presume that, in the two following instances, he does not praise the good Archbishop Eugenius for nothing. At page 24, his lady says, or *seems to say*, 'As several of the restored names of places on this coast are very exact, you will probably be curious to know who the antiquary was that pointed them out to Prince Potemkin; and I find that it was the able and venerable Grecian Eugenius, archbishop of all these new conquests, and who addressed to you the beautiful little Greek ode on your "Russian Antiquities," which was published with them.' Again, (p. 62.) 'Prince Potemkin was so happy as to have the assistance of the learned Eugenius Archbishop of the Taurida, who wrote the pretty Greek lines on your "Russian Antiquities."

The industry and erudition which we have just contemplated are, doubtless, deserving of another pretty little ode; and, as sweet poesy delights in fiction, the encomiastic muse may boldly descant on the correctness, elegance, and smartness of the Doctor's style; while hapless Reviewers are doomed to speak in plain English, and in humble prose, of the ruggedness of the way, and of the perils of yawning and drowsiness which thickened as they advanced. We have frequently been surprized at the prolonged structure of Dr. G.'s sentences: but, in mercy to our readers, we shall quote only one example:

'There are still some remains here of the famous wall, which Xenophon, in his continuation of Thucydides, tells us was built by Dercyllius, General of the Lacedæmonians, within the above mentioned taphras, or trench, four miles and six hundred paces long, in consequence of a representation made to him while commanding an army in Thrace, now Romali, by deputies from the Chersonesus Taurica (the ancient name of the Crimea, or Taurida), who declared

the peninsula constantly exposed to the incursions of the Scythians of the desert; and the more certainly to engage the General to build the required wall, they assured him that he would thereby secure the peace and happiness of eleven cities, several sea-ports, and many vineyards, besides a quantity of corn and pasture-land, all in the alliance and protection of Sparta; and Xenophon adds, that Dercyllius finished it in one summer by offering rewards to the most diligent of his soldiers.'

An antiquary ought to have more respect for grammar than to talk of the *charming order and arrangement that ever reigns*, of the *new fort and city* which *has been*, of afflicting *you and I*, &c. &c. *Penates* and *vittæ* are both occasionally employed as singular terms; and *sculptoric*, *technicals*, and *lubricious*, are used without necessity or apology. Among very unscholar-like misprintings, we observe *lote*, *Sorbis acaparia*, *cantana*, *Peladimus*, *Thymus*, *Dolphinus*, *medimi*, *osterea*, &c. for *lotus*, *Sorbus aucuparia* (oddly mistranslated *hag* *), *lantana*, *Pelamis*, *Thynnus*, *Delphinus*, *Medienni*, *ostrea*, &c.

If Dr. G. declines to trace the distinctions between the Tartar and Mongul tribes, we are not to suppose that he is 'by any means ignorant of what has been said on the subject,'† but merely that he wishes 'to save trouble and avoid explanations that are tiresome to readers when they do not sit down with the express purpose of such investigations, for which a Lady's tour is certainly a very improper place.' We really lament that this exquisite sense of the fitness of things was so late in waiting on the learned physician, and that it so very soon forsook him. In the course of a few pages, we find him again *abandoned to his idols*, and discoursing with wonderful coolness of *Priapus*, *a glaring Phallus*, and other matters, for which we conceive 'a Lady's tour to be a very improper place.'

We cannot close our report of this volume, however, without remarking, in justice to the editor, that he has bestowed uncommon pains on the construction of the map; and that his labours have added much to our imperfect knowlege of long-forgotten countries, which promise once more to emerge into notice and importance.

---

* *Hag-berry* is, we believe, the Scottish appellation of *Prunus Padus*, or *Bird cherry*.

† See note, p. 412.

ART. II. *Mr.* Percival's *Account of the Island of Ceylon.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 127.]

AGRICULTURE is still in a state of extreme rudeness among the Ceylonese. Their plough is a crooked piece of wood, one end of which serves for the handle, and the other, shod with iron, tears up the ground superficially. The rice-fields are worked with this instrument before and after they have been flooded. The other implements of husbandry are a smoothing board, and a piece of board fastened to the end of a long pole, which answers the purpose of a rake. Sowing and ploughing are the common concern of each village. Secure of the spontaneous fruits of the earth, and of a pittance of rice sufficient to maintain existence where the soil admits of watering, these lazy cultivators are averse to all improvements, especially if attended with additional labour.

The religious notions of the Ceylonese are polluted by the most degrading superstitions; and the same people who adore one supreme benevolent being, and *Buddou*, or the Saviour of Souls, regulate their conduct by a childish belief in omens, and pay homage to fancied demons, to animals, and to plants. The resurrection of the body and the immortality of the soul compose part of their discordant creed; and their ideas of rigid predestination are softened by the persuasion that spells and almsgiving may lighten the pressure of appointed calamity. To the dishonour of our race, the more sly and discerning individuals of a rude community have seldom failed to practise on the ignorance and ideal terrors of their weaker brethren, and to derive credit and emolument from the propagation of dogmas artfully connected with the sublime doctrine of a future state of existence. We need not, then, wonder if priestcraft should flourish in the mountainous districts of Ceylon:

'The priests of Buddou are in Ceylon accounted superior to all others. They are called *Tirinanxes*, and are held in high estimation at the court of Candy, where indeed they have the chief management of affairs. The king has no authority over them, but endeavours to gain their good will by respecting their immunities, and loading them with distinctions. They have on many occasions shewn their gratitude for these attentions, and have materially assisted him both in repressing disturbances in his own dominions, and by exciting the people to support him in his wars against the Dutch. The followers of Buddou believe in the immortality of the soul, and its transmigration into various bodies before it reaches Nimban, or the region of Eternity.

'In such high veneration are the Tirinanxes held that their persons are accounted sacred; and the king of Candy, absolute as he is, has no power to take away their lives or anywise punish them even for

conspiring against his own life. They chuse their own superiors: and their chief priest or archbishop is invested with the power of settling all religious disputes. The body of the Tirinanxes are elected by the king from among the nobles, and they are consequently men possessed of power and influence even independent of their sacred character. The honours and respect with which they are every where attended shew the strong hold which they have on the minds of the people. All ranks bow down before them; when they sit down, they find their seats covered with a white cloth; and when they walk forth, the broad end of the Talipot leaf is borne before them: All these are privileges of the highest kind, and shared with them only by the monarch. The Tirinanxes are also exempted from all taxes. They are placed under certain restrictions, and are totally debarred from wine or women. They have however an opportunity of escaping from these restraints; and are allowed to lay aside their order when it suits their inclination.

'Their dress consists of a large loose piece of yellow cloth thrown over their left shoulder, and fastened round the waist by a girdle of the same. The right shoulder, the arms, the head, and the feet, are completely bare. In one hand they carry a painted cane, and in the other an umbrella of the broad end of the Talipot leaf.

'The temples of Buddou are superior to those of all the other deities; for they never dedicate temples to the Supreme Being, nor represent him by any image. In the temples of Buddou are figures of men habited, like his priests, and placed in various postures: some of them are seen sitting cross-legged on the ground with long bushy heads of hair like their women, while others recline at full length on the ground. At Ruanelli in the interior, I saw a monstrous figure upwards of twenty feet in length, placed in the cavern of an immense rock which lay at the bottom of a hill: I shall describe it more particularly in my account of the embassy to Candy.

'In the interior of Ceylon, the ruins of the pagodas and temples which fell in my way were all of hewn stone, and of much superior workmanship to these in the lower parts of the country. Several of them were in a perfect state of preservation; and on a comparison with those erected in later times, they afford the strongest proof either that the Ceylonese had formerly attained a much higher state of civilization, or that the island had anciently been inhabited by a different race from its present possessors. Most of these ancient monuments however have suffered severely from the ravages of the Portuguese, whose policy it was to destroy all monuments of art or former splendour among the unhappy natives. But the religious buildings of the Ceylonese were not only defaced and ruined by their barbarous invaders; even the materials which composed them, the hewn stones and massy pillars, were transported to the sea-coasts to erect fortifications, and rivet those chains which were imposed on their former worshippers.

'The temples dedicated to the inferior gods are poor, mean, and contemptible; and usually constructed of clay and wood. In general they are mere huts one story high, without windows, and covered with cocoa-tree leaves. At the doors of these homely edifices, a pole

or flag is commonly placed, and by it a priest is seen sitting during the whole course of the day. There is no figure too ridiculous to find a place within: besides Swammies of all constructions, there are representations of wild beasts, birds, pieces of consecrated armour, and some very indecent figures of men and women.

'The priests of the inferior deities, though dressed in the same manner with the Tirinanxes, are easily distinguishable by the smaller degree of respect which is paid them. They are continually met in their wandering excursions over the island, and, like all these of the same class in India, are a set of lazy, impudent vagabonds, who, without any exertion or industry, are enabled to live well by the extortions which they practise on the people. Even those who supply their demands are conscious of their vices; but superstitious fears have taken too deep a hold on the minds of the votaries to permit them to withdraw themselves from the yoke.

'The superstition of the Ceylonese serves instead of regular endowments for the support of their religious establishments. The Candians indeed allow certain portions of land and particular taxes to maintain their priests and religious houses, particularly those of Buddou. The inferior priests however are left to support their temples and themselves by their own dexterity, and in this task they are very successful. As all sorts of diseases are accounted immediate indications of the divine wrath, the priest and the temple are the constant remedies. Hence all the religious resorts are daily crowded with diseased votaries who expect, by the prayers which they offer up, to appease the incensed gods. Nor do they ever neglect to enforce their prayers by a gift, which they devoutly deposit on the altar. The priest presents it up with all due ceremony to the god; and after its purpose is thus served, very prudently converts it to his own use. It is a rule with their priests never to quit the temple till replaced by some of their own order; and by this means the offerings of the devotees are punctually received, while another party of the priests are making a tour of the country in search of casual contributions.

'The time of sickness is of course the season when the priests expect their principal harvest. Besides other offerings, it is usual for a Ceylonese when he is apprehensive of danger from his illness, to devote a cock to the devil or evil spirit who he imagines torments him. The animal is then left at home to fatten till the Jaddese or priest finds it convenient to dedicate him at the Covel or temple. When any particular festival or sacrifice is intended, it is usual to see the priest going from village to village to collect the dedicated cocks for the occasion; and he often procures several dozens at a time.'

A very current tradition among the native islanders is, that our first parent took his farewell view of Paradise from the summit of Hammalleel, or Adam's Peak, the highest mountain in Ceylon; that he went by land to India; and that, as soon as he passed Adam's Bridge, the sea flowed behind him, and cut off for ever all hopes of return.

'It is to Adam's Peak that the Ceylonese repair to worship at the great Festival of Buddou. The Cinglese of the coasts in particular resort to it in vast multitudes. A large proportion of the Candians likewise attend; but whether from a fear of mixing with foreigners, or from ideas of superior sanctity, they seem more inclined to hold their great festival under the shade of the *Bogaha* tree, which stands at Annarodgburro, an ancient city, in the northern part of the king of Candy's dominions; and none but his own subjects are permitted to approach this sanctuary. The Bogaha tree, says tradition, suddenly flew over from some distant country, and planted itself in the spot where it now stands. It was intended as a shelter for the god Buddou; and under its branches he was wont to repose while he sojourned on earth. Near this hallowed spot ninety kings are interred, who all merited admission to the regions of bliss by the temples and images they constructed for Buddou. They are now sent as good spirits to preside over the safety of his followers, and protect them from being brought into subjection to Europeans; a calamity against which they continually pray. Around the tree are a number of huts, erected for the use of the devotees who repair hither; and as every sort of uncleanness and dust must be removed from the sacred spot, people are retained for the purpose of continually sweeping the approaches before the worshippers, and to attend the priests during the performance of the ceremonies.

'As the preference was given by Buddou to the shade of the Bogaha tree above all others, it is universally held sacred among the Ceylonese. Wherever it is found throughout the island, persons are appointed to watch over it and preserve it from dirt or injury. The Bogaha tree is held in the same estimation among the followers of Buddou, as the Banyan tree among the Brahmins.'

The *Cinglese*, as distinguished from the *Candians*, are mild and tractable, and appear to be very susceptible of virtuous education: but their intercourse with Europeans has deprived them of a portion of their physical and moral vigour, and their habits of submission to a foreign yoke have stamped their deportment with the characters of a conquered people. As such, they are too much despised by the Candians, who boast of being still unsubdued, when they cheerfully crouch to a tyrant of their own race.—The Cinglese are ingenious and expert artificers, supply our garrisons with provisions at a very moderate rate, and though, in most respects, subject to our laws and forms of justice, are under the immediate jurisdiction of their native magistrates, or *Moodeliers*. These last are chosen from among the nobles, who form a distinct class, and are intitled to peculiar privileges. They are partial to Europeans, and treat them with a degree of candour and affability unknown on the Continent of India.

Our intelligent author commences his account of the unconquered part of the island with this pertinent remark:

'The

'The possession of the interior might tend to the security of our dominion; and an improved mode of cultivation might make it capable of maintaining a much greater number of inhabitants; but these purposes may be as effectually attained by a friendly intercourse with the natives, as by a direct submission to our authority. Our government will doubtless avoid the error of the former European masters of Ceylon, who wasted unprofitably, in vain attempts to subdue the natives, that time and those resources which might have rendered this island one of the most valuable colonies in the world.'

The jealousy of the king of Candy and his subjects is a barrier hardly less formidable than the thickets and mountains which beset their territory. Should a stranger, by singular address or perseverance, penetrate within the rugged and gloomy circle, he is watched with the utmost circumspection; and his retreat is cut off, perhaps for life. Even the few ambassadors who have painfully journeyed with their retinues to the city, or rather miserable village of Candy, have been admitted to an unmeaning audience only by torch-light, and always retired before day-break. Our information concerning the interior of Ceylon is, accordingly, very scanty and imperfect. Mr. P.'s statements, however, rest on something more than conjecture; for he travelled in the suite of Gen. Macdowal, who was sent by Governor North as ambassador to Candy. Though the towns which are at present inhabited have a wretched aspect, the remains of others indicate a state of former splendour and civilization:

'The whole of the king's country, with the exception of the plains around Anurodgburro, present a constant interchange of steep mountains and low vallies. The excessive thickness of the woods, which cover by far the greatest portion of the country, causes heavy fogs and unwholesome damps to prevail. Every evening the fogs fall with the close of day, and are not again dissipated till the sun has acquired great power. The vallies are in general marshy, full of springs, and excellently adapted for the cultivation of rice and rearing of cattle. These advantages, however, are greatly counteracted by the unhealthiness of the climate in these parts after the rainy season. The principal difference between the climate of the interior and that of the coasts, is occasioned by the stagnation of the atmosphere in the former. The depth of the vallies and the thickness of the woods conspire to prevent the free circulation of air; and hence the night is constantly attended with excessive cold damps, which are succeeded by days equally noxious from their hot and sultry vapours. An European on coming into the interior is very liable to catch the hill or jungle fever. It is a disease resembling our ague and intermittent fever, and never leaves the person attacked if he does not immediately change his residence to the sea-coast, where the climate is more cool and refreshing by day, while it is free from the cold and damps of the night.'

The Candians are divided into four classes or casts; of which, the first includes the nobles; the second, the artists; the third, the workmen of a lower order, and the common soldiers; and the fourth, the peasants and labourers. The precedence and the purity of these immemorial divisions are observed with the most rigid nicety; and the unfortunate beings who have forfeited their cast entail indelible infamy on themselves and their posterity.

Though the crown of Candy is elective, the king, (who is always held to be descended of the Sun,) and his *Adigars*, or prime ministers, exercise an almost unlimited despotism; and that extreme veneration for the person of the sovereign, which characterizes most of the Eastern governments, is recognized to its full extent in the fastuesses of Ceylon. Every address preferred to the monarch is introduced by a multitude of high sounding titles; his very ministers converse with him in whispers; and his approach is announced by such barbarous pomp as a display of motley flags and streamers, and the production of a very loud and discordant noise from a jarring band of musical instruments:

'But the most remarkable attendants of the monarch are a set of people furnished with long whips of a peculiar kind, who keep running before the procession with strange gestures like madmen, to clear the way, and announce the approach of the king. The whips are made of hemp, coya, grass, or hair, and consist of a thong or lash from eight to twelve feet long, without any handle. The loud noise which the forerunners produce with their whips, as well as the dexterity with which they avoid touching those who come in their way, is truly astonishing; although an European, from the indiscriminate manner in which they appear to deal their lashes, cannot help feeling alarmed for his safety. In all the interviews which the embassy I attended had at the court of Candy, the ceremony of the whip-crackers was never omitted, to the great annoyance of our troops, who were very sulky and displeased on the occasion. Indeed it was impossible for the men under arms to attend to what they were about while these long whips were kept continually brandishing and cracking about their ears; and for my own part, although I was well convinced of the dexterity of those who wielded them, yet I could not help expecting every moment to come in for my share of chastisement.'

The gradation of inferior court-officers composes a regular system of oppression and extortion. The *Dissauvas*, or military governors of districts, are next in rank to the Adigars. As they usually reside at court, they have inferior officers, who act according to their commands, either in collecting the public revenues, or in squeezing the people for the emolument of their patrons. Subordinate to these deputies, are the constables

stables and police-officers. The peasants 'have long since been stripped of every thing valuable, and many of them trust to the spontaneous fruits of their forests for a scanty subsistence, rather than cultivate fields whose produce must be shared with their oppressors.'

The regular troops, amounting to 20,000, wear no uniform, and are armed with such weapons as they can best procure. The king's body-guard consists of a band of Malabars, Malays, and others who are not his natural subjects. The latter, however, are all obliged to take arms, when called by the royal command. As it is part of the king's wretched policy to cherish *espionage* among all ranks of his subjects, the commander and other officers of the forces are never allowed to correspond, nor even to see each other, unless when the exigencies of the public service require an interview. Hence distrust and jealousy pervade the whole military system:

'With regard to courts of law or regular forms of administering justice, the Candians appear to have scarcely formed any conceptions. Their trials are summary; and their punishments, unless where the king interposes, immediate. Their capital punishments are always attended with some aggravating cruelty; having the criminal dashed to pieces by elephants, pounding him in a large mortar, or impaling him on a stake, are the common modes practised. Where the offence is not adjudged worthy of death, the culprit is condemned to pay a heavy fine, to have his property confiscated, to perform severe tasks of various sorts, such as carrying heavy weights on his back, levelling hills, and raising them up again, &c. Imprisonment is a species of punishment never to be inflicted on a Candian, and only suited to the barbarity of Europeans. This may be alleged as the principal cause of their summary trials and punishments, as they never confine a culprit. Not only a prison, but any species of confinement seems to convey ideas peculiarly horrible to their imaginations. The Candian ambassadors could not even be prevailed upon to allow the doors of the carriage, sent to convey them to an audience with our Governor, to be shut upon them, as they said it looked like making them prisoners: and the doors were actually obliged to be fastened back in order to remove their objections.'

Of the origin and history of the *Bedahs*, or *Vaddahs*, little is known, because they eagerly shun the society of the other races of inhabitants. The wildest of these woodland wanderers recognize no authority except that of their own chiefs: but others, without formally acknowleging the sovereignty of the king, furnish him with ivory, wax, and deer:

'And such of them as skirt the European territories, barter these articles with the Cinglese for the simple things which their mode of life requires. To prevent themselves from being surprised or made prisoners, while carrying on this traffic, the method they employ is curious. When they stand in need of cloth, iron, knives, or any other articles

articles of smiths' work, they approach by night some town or village, and deposit, in a place where it is likely immediately to be discovered, a certain quantity of their goods, along with a talipot leaf expressive of what they want in return. On a following night they repair again to the same place, and generally find their expected reward awaiting them. For although they are easily satisfied, and readily allow the advantage to the person with whom they deal, yet if their requests are treated with neglect, they will not fail to watch their opportunity of doing him a mischief. The Cinglese, as they can afterwards dispose of the articles afforded by the Bedahs, find the traffic profitable; and in some parts frequently go into the woods, carrying with them articles of barter. This trade, however, can only be carried on in the manner I have already described; for no native of the woods can be more afraid of approaching a stranger than the Bedahs. A few, as I have already said, will venture even to converse with the other natives; but the wilder class, known by the name of Ramba Vaddahs, are more seldom seen even by stealth than the most timid of the wild animals.'

Of the native quadrupeds of Ceylon, the Elephant is the most conspicuous, and surpasses those of the Continent in hardiness and docility. Horses and Sheep soon degenerate on the island; and are but rarely found. The Ox is small and shapeless, with a hump on its shoulders. Buffalos are very frequently used in draught, on account of their strength: but neither a sense of fear nor gentle usage can completely subdue their savage nature. When they are at large, it is very dangerous for any individual to fall in with them, especially if he be dressed in red, a colour to which they manifest a very marked antipathy.—The woods and jungles abound with Deer and Elks: but under the former, Mr. P. seems to include one or more varieties of the Antelope. Hares, Monkeys, Squirrels, Rats of various kinds, Porcupines, Armadillos, Jackalls, &c. are extremely common. Large and fierce Wild Boars, a small species of Tyger, and the Tyger-cat, are among the beasts of prey. The Hyæna and the Bear are occasionally found on the north-east side of the island:

'The Indian Ichneumon is a small creature, in appearance between a Weazel and a Mungoose. It is of infinite use to the natives, from its inveterate enmity to Snakes, which would otherwise render every footstep of the traveller dangerous. The proofs of sagacity which I have seen in this little animal are truly surprising, and afford a beautiful instance of the wisdom with which Providence has fitted the powers of every animal to its particular situation on the globe. This diminutive creature, on seeing a Snake ever so large, will instantly dart on it and seize it by the throat, provided he finds himself in an open place where he has an opportunity of running to a certain herb, which he knows instinctively to be an antidote against the poison of the bite, if he should happen to receive one. I was present at an experiment tried

tried at Columbo to ascertain the reality of this circumstance. The Ichneumon, procured for the purpose, was first shewn the Snake in a close room. On being let down to the ground, he did not discover any inclination whatever to attack his enemy, but ran prying about the room to discover if there was any hole or aperture by which he might get out. On finding none, he returned hastily to his master, and placing himself in his bosom, could not by any means be induced to quit it, or face the Snake. On being carried out of the house, however, and laid down near his antagonist in an open place, he instantly flew at the Snake, and soon destroyed it. He then suddenly disappeared for a few minutes, and again returned as soon as he had found the herb and eat of it. This useful instinct impels the animal to have recourse to the herb on all occasions, where it is engaged with a Snake, whether poisonous or not. The one employed in this experiment was of the harmless kind, and procured for the purpose.'

It is to be wished that the author had specified the plant in question, (especially as it is afterward stated to be an antidote to the very active poison of the *cobra de capello*,) and that he had ascertained whether the animal has recourse to it only on being bitten by a Snake.

In his account of the Musk-rats, Mr. P. asserts that 'many articles are rendered entirely useless by the smell of musk which they communicate in merely running over them. For it is a certain fact, that of so penetrating a nature is their effluvia, that if they even pass over a bottle of wine ever so well corked and sealed up, it becomes so strongly tainted with musk that it cannot be used; and a whole cask may be rendered useless in the same manner.'

The birds of Ceylon include all our domestic poultry, except the Turkey; most of the species of feathered tribes which frequent our woods and marshes; and not a few that are peculiar to warm latitudes.

'Among a great variety of smaller birds, we particularly distinguish the Honey-bird. It is so called from a particular instinct by which it discovers the honey concealed in trees. As if designed for the service of the human species, this bird continues to flutter about and make a great noise till it has attracted the notice of some person, and induced him to follow the course it points out to him. It then flutters before him, till it has led him to the tree where the bees have lodged their treasure. The man then carries off the honey, leaving a little for the use of the bird, which silently and contentedly watches till it is permitted to enjoy its reward. As soon as it has eaten up its portion, it renews its noise, and goes in quest of another tree, followed by the man, who finds a guide here provided for him by nature.

'The Tailor-bird is particularly remarkable for the art with which it constructs its nest. This bird is of a yellow colour, not exceeding three inches in length, and slender in proportion. To prevent the

possibility of its little nest being shaken down, it contrives to attach it in such a manner to the leaves of the tree, that both must stand or fall together. The nest is formed of leaves which it picks up from the ground: and it contrives, by means of its slender bill and some fine fibres, which it uses as needle and thread, to sew these leaves to those growing on the tree with great dexterity. Hence it receives the name of the Tailor-bird. The lining, which consists of down, adds little to the weight of the nest, which is scarcely felt on the twig that supports it.'

The Swallows, of the same species with ours, never quit the island.

Serpents and insects are extremely numerous, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants: but the existence of the *Covra manilla*, which is represented as even more dreadful than the *Capello*, may perhaps be doubted. The Rock-snake measures from 20 to 30 feet in length, and is about the thickness of a man's thigh: but it is perfectly free from poison.—The woods and swampy grounds, especially during the rainy season, are grievously infested with a minute species of Leech, which is sometimes the cause of a man's bleeding to death.—Ants of various descriptions, particularly the white species, the black Scorpion, whose sting is frequently mortal, and the Centipede, which first bites and then stings, are likewise in the list of vexatious vermin. 'There is, moreover, an immense Spider found here, with legs not less than four inches long, and having the body covered with thick black hair. The webs which it makes are strong enough to entangle and hold even small birds, which form its usual prey.'

The lakes and rivers abound in fish: but no particular kind is mentioned, except the Mullet.—In the succeeding passage, we suspect some mis-statement:

'One circumstance has often struck me with astonishment, that in every pond or muddy pool, casually supplied with rain-water, or even only recently formed, and entirely unconnected with any other water, swarms of fishes are continually found. The only explanation which it appears possible to give of this phenomenon, is that the spawn is by some unknown process carried up with the rain into the skies, and then let down with it upon the earth in a condition immediately to become alive.'

We should be glad to know whether no spawn of any kind was deposited prior to the rain, when shallow water perhaps existed on the same spots; whether no superficial nor subterraneous communication could be traced with lakes or rivers, and the connecting canals speedily dried up by the powerful evaporation which prevails in tropical climates; or whether the supposed fishes were not Tadpoles or Water-lizards.

An

An enumeration of the vegetable productions of this island would present us with most of the fruits and plants which are found in similar latitudes. Of the Mango, one of the most delicious of Indian fruits, it is observed that no two, plucked from the same tree, resemble each other in taste and flavour.

A species of Palm, denominated the *Sugar-tree*, is found in several parts of the island:

'On cutting off the flower and making an incision in the place from which it sprung, a juice distils which by a slight process of boiling and straining yields as good a sugar as that extracted from the cane, and far superior to the jaggery. The commercial advantages to be derived from the proper cultivation of this plant need not be insisted upon; and experiments will no doubt speedily be made to ascertain whether this tree might not be made a substitute to the cane.

'But it is not sugar alone that Ceylon seems destined to afford to the general use of the Western world; the *Tea-plant* has also been discovered native in the forests of this island. I have in my possession a letter from an officer in the 80th regt. wherein he states that he had found the real tea-plant in the woods of Ceylon, of a quality equal to any that ever grew in China; and that it was in his power to point out to Government the means of cultivating it in a proper manner. The vast advantages to be derived from the cultivation of the tea-plant in our own dominions ought at least to prompt a speedy and vigorous experiment on the subject.

'The most beautiful species of the Palm kind which Ceylon produces is the *Talipot-tree*. This tree is very rare in other parts of India, and seems a peculiar blessing bestowed by Providence on this island. It grows very tall and straight: the wood is hard, and veined with yellow, and is employed in carpenters' work. The Talipot bears a large yellow flower, which, when ripe, bursts with a loud noise, and diffuses a disagreeable and unwholesome smell. It is on this account that the natives will not place their huts near it. The fruit is of a round form, and about the size of a cannon-ball: it contains two nuts of the same shape. But it is from its leaves that the talipot derives its high estimation. These hang downwards from the top, and present a most elegant and grand appearance. The leaf is completely circular, terminating in the most beautiful rays; it folds up into plaits like a fan, which in figure it nearly resembles. In size and thickness it completely surpasses always all other leaves. The breadth of the diameter is from three to four feet, and the length and thickness is in proportion: it is large enough to cover ten men from the inclemency of the weather. It is made into umbrellas of all sizes, and serves equally to protect the natives against the intolerable rays of the sun, and the rains which at particular seasons deluge their country. As it is of such an impenetrable texture as to defy either the sun or the monsoon, it affords a shelter even more secure than their huts. During the violent rains it is not unusual to see the natives prop up one end of a talipot leaf with a stick two or three feet long, and then creep under it for protection.

'The

'The *Banyan* tree, or, as it is frequently called the *Indian fig-tree*, is a native of Ceylon. It bears no fruit nor blossom, but grows to an immense size, and has some striking peculiarities in its appearance. It first rises to a great height in the air, and then drops its branches downwards. A vast number of roots are then observed to shoot forth from the lower extremities of the branches, where they continue suspended like icicles, till they at last fasten themselves in the earth. From these roots new shoots spring up, which in their turn become trees, and strike their branches into the ground. A whole grove is thus formed from one original stock; and the arches formed by the branches and the numerous interwoven shoots, come in time to have actually the appearance of grottos and excavations. The circumference of the grove arising from one stock has frequently been known to extend to several hundred feet.

'It is no wonder that the admirable shelter afforded by this noble tree should have pointed it out to the particular veneration of the inhabitants of the torrid zone. Indeed, without the assistance of its impenetrable shade, it is almost impossible that the numerous ceremonies enjoined by their superstition could have been at all performed. It is here therefore that we find the Brahmins and the devotees of their religion continually celebrating their rites. The pagodas are usually erected in the neighbourhood of this friendly shade, as well as the choultries prepared for the accommodation of the weary traveller. It is common for the Indian to take up his abode under this tree, and to remain stretched at his ease in the shade while every thing exposed to the rays of the sun is scorched with the intolerable heat.'

An interesting chapter is devoted to an account of the Cinnamon tree; and some important general hints are suggested with regard to the improvement of its culture.

The chapter on Mineralogy slightly notices about twenty sorts of precious stones, the existence of lead, tin, and iron ores, (which are not worked,) a small mine of quicksilver, and the hot wells of Cannia, of which the *negative* properties are sufficiently numerous.

The journal of the embassy to Candy presents little that is worthy of notice, which may not be found in the body of the work.

More than a century has elapsed since Captain Knox, who was detained a prisoner during nineteen years on the island of Ceylon, *gave* (to use the language of Robert Hooke) *a taste of his observations, in which most readers, though of very different gusts, may find somewhat very pleasant to their pallat.* Knox, in fact, sprinkled his history with some traits of the marvellous: but he wrote with *naiveté*, and collected many curious particulars, which the present writer has exhibited in a more modish form. If inclined to be hypercritical, we might also require of Mr. P. a more natural and obvious arrangement of his materials; the suppression of a few repetitions; more liveliness of relation;

relation; and a guarantee against *maltreating* * the purity and accuracy of the English language. We feel, however, sincere satisfaction in assuring our readers, that we have seldom perused a publication more replete with solid information, detailed in a clear and unaffected manner; and that the few remarks, which are interspersed in the narrative, are dictated by good sense, naturally arise out of the subject, and are directed to the welfare of an extensive settlement.

ART. III. *Annotations on the Practical Part of Dr. Paley's "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy."* By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 8vo. pp. 163. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons.

How much soever philosophers may differ in stating the foundation of Moral Obligation, (a subject which was ably discussed in Mr. Pearson's "*Remarks on the Theory of Morals* †;") yet, as they universally admit that such Obligation exists, it is of more importance to consider the system of duty in detail, than to speculate on the abstract principle. Granting the basis of Morality to be the Will of God, it still becomes a question what that Will in all cases requires; and though we have the light of Revelation superadded to that of Reason, ethical writers are not agreed in their practical precepts. Dr. Paley's work, intitled "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy ‡," has obtained sufficient reputation to become a text-book in the Universities; and Mr. Pearson used it for that purpose in giving a course of Lectures to the Students of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge: but, in the volume before us, we find that he no more uniformly subscribes to all the *practical*, than in his preceding publication he assented to all the *theoretical*, parts of Dr. Paley's treatise. He has no wish, however, to detract from the general merit of this performance; for he remarks that, as 'it was said of *Socrates* that he brought down Philosophy from the sacred abodes of the Gods to dwell with men on earth; so in like manner, it may be truly said of Dr. *Paley*, that he has brought Philosophy from the retreat of the learned into the walks of common life, and almost to the cradles of the young.' Still he deems him open to objections; and in these Annotations, which must be regarded as notes to the text-book, he has furnished a kind of supplement to Dr. Paley,

* We have sometimes suspected that our author submitted his MS. to the revision of a friend beyond the Tweed.

† See M. Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 41.

‡ Ibid. Vol. lxxiii. pp. 133. 401.

which

which will evince his solicitude to impress on the minds of his pupils clear and correct ideas of moral duty: a subject which is far from having been adequately discussed.

Mr. Pearson commences his remarks with the 10th chapter of Dr. Paley's IId book, on *the Division of Rights*, observing that

'*Adventitious* rights, under which are comprehended all the institutions of civil society, are here very properly, and very clearly, made to depend on the *will of God*. Human laws, therefore, when made with a due regard to the welfare of mankind, may justly be looked upon as so many indications of the divine will delivered by the instrumentality of man. The consideration of this may serve to satisfy those persons, who object to an expression or two in a prayer for the *King*, which occurs in the Communion service; namely, "knowing whose minister he is," and "duly considering whose authority he hath." For, not to mention, that these expressions are entirely consonant to the phraseology of Scripture, they may thus be made appear to be agreeable to the plainest dictates of reason. I will add, that I always make use of this prayer, in preference to the next succeeding one, on the ground, that it contains the expression of our desires, that the *people* may perform their duty, as well as the *King*.'

Here, if we may be allowed, in our turn, to annotate on the Annotator, we should say that it does not follow that the language respecting the King in the prayer above mentioned is constitutionally correct, because human laws, when made with a due regard to the welfare of mankind, may in one sense be considered as indications of the divine will. The excellence of any one law, or the good administration of the laws in general, cannot be admitted in proof of the divine right of the Chief Magistrate; since an usurper may frame and execute wholesome laws. It is well known that the expressions in this prayer, included in parentheses, have been censured as intended to support an exploded doctrine; and it has been made a question whether, after the transactions of the Revolution, there can be any propriety in retaining them. We should not have inferred Mr. Pearson's preference of this composition, from the passage in his 30th of January Sermon, 1794, quoted at p. 97. We are thankful, however, that there is now no necessity for the discussion of this subject.

Apprehending that the remarks in this chapter, concerning the assertion of perfect rights by *force*, may tend to a mistake, the author subjoins a judicious comment; and, in order to facilitate the more clear comprehension of observations respecting Dr. Paley's *perfect* and *imperfect* rights and obligations, the following definitions are here given:

'1. A

'1. A *law* is a forcible rule of action.

'2. A *divine* or *moral* law, being an expression of the will of God, is that, which derives its force from the relation subsisting between God and his intelligent creatures.

'N. B. It follows, from this definition, that all *divine* precepts, being so many expressions of the will of God, are *laws*, i. e. *moral* laws.

'3. A *human* or *instituted* law is that, which derives its force from the hope of reward, or the fear of punishment.

'4. *Obligation* is that constraint to an action or forbearance from action, which is constituted by a *law*.

'5. A *moral* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *moral* law.

'6. A *legal* obligation (according to the common acceptation of the term) is that, which is constituted by a *human* law.

'7. An *imperfect* or *indeterminate* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *general* law.

'8. A *perfect* or *determinate* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *particular* or *specific* law.'

Agreeably to these definitions, Mr. P. would found the distinction between *perfect* and *imperfect* rights, and their corresponding obligations, on the *determinate* or *indeterminate* nature of them, rather than on the mode in which they may be asserted.

To the chapter on the *General Rights of Mankind*, this humane note is added:

'I think it right to add, that the permission to eat the flesh of animals does not extend to the inflicting on them any unnecessary pain; and that the infliction of any, either in the mode of preparing them for slaughter, or in the actual slaughter of them, whether from the want of due care, or for the sake of heightening the flavour of their flesh, must be a heinous offence in the sight of that Being, who wills the greatest possible happiness of *all* his creatures.'

On the subject of *Promises*, the annotator differs from his author, and with some reason:

'Dr. *Paley* thinks, that "it is the *performance* being unlawful, and not any unlawfulness in the subject or motive of a promise, which destroys its validity;" and therefore, that "the reward of any crime, after the crime is committed, ought, if promised, to be paid" This is a maxim, which, in my opinion, suits much better with a court of what the world sometimes miscalls *honour*, than with a court of *morality*. I say *miscalls* honour; for I would not be thought to say any thing in disparagement of *real* honour; that auxiliary of virtue, which, however it may elude the definition of the moralist, is sufficiently fixed by that of the poet:

> "Honour's a sacred tie, the law of kings,
> The noble mind's distinguishing perfection,
> That aids and strengthens virtue, where it meets her,
> And imitates her actions, where she is not."
>
> *Addison's Cato.*

This maxim is, besides, inconsistent with Dr. *Paley*'s own rule of *general utility*; for though, in the particular case, in which the reward is paid, the "sin and mischief," as he observes, "are over, and will be neither more nor less for the performance of the promise:" yet the belief of an obligation to perform such promises would not fail, "upon the whole, at the long run," to encourage what it cannot be the will of God to encourage, similar instances of sin and mischief. It would, surely, be more conducive to the interests of society, as well as more consonant to sound morality, to lay it down as a maxim, that, from an action, which is founded in injustice, no claims of justice on the part of those, who are concerned in it, knowing it to be so founded, can possibly arise. Agreeably to this, *Hutcheson* says, "Humani generis interest, ut nulla sint ex pactis scelerum invitamenta; nullaque in istiusmodi pactis fides." *Philos. Moral* Inst. L. 2. C. 9.'

We pass over a variety of remarks which might be adduced in proof of Mr. Pearson's sagacity, to proceed to the chapter relating to *Subscription to Articles of Religion*, which has occasioned much embarrassment to the Clergy; who are not yet agreed respecting the moral duty which it implies and demands. After having observed that the *expediency* of requiring subscription is a question which belongs to the chapter on *Religious Establishments*, (of which, he adds, 'subscription to articles is the great support,') he considers the nature and extent of the *obligation* arising from such subscription, supposing it to be made:

'In order to ascertain this, Dr. *Paley* very properly inquires who is the imposer of subscription, and what is the intention of imposing it. After denying the character of imposer to the particular bishop, who receives the subscription, and to the compilers of the articles, he says, "The legislature of the 13th *Eliz.* is the imposer, whose intention the subscriber is bound to obey." Dr. *Powell*, on the contrary, who, on such a subject is first-rate authority, thinks, that "subscription to the articles is to be considered as meaning, what it is usually conceived to mean; not by the governors of the church, because they cannot properly be said to require that, which they have no authority to dispense with or alter; not by the legislature, because their sense we shall never be able to determine; but by the general voice of learned men through the nation." Discourse 2.

'Both these opinions I take to be wrong. With respect to the first, I have to observe in general, that neither the legislature of *Elizabeth*, nor that of any period preceding the present, has any authority to bind us, but what it receives from the sanction, expressed or implied, of the legislature of the present. If a law, passed at any former period, is suffered to remain unrepealed, we may, in ordinary cases, reasonably conclude, that it is the intention of the present legislature to continue it; but it is the latter circumstance alone, which lays us under an obligation to observe it. When it can be clearly collected, that it is not the intention of the present legislature to continue any law, that law is not binding on the conscience, even though it should remain

unrepealed. If this were not the case, there could be no such thing as a law wholly or in part *obsolete*; no such thing as an unrepealed law, which is not in its full original force. For an obsolete law is that, which it is the implied intention of the present legislature not to apply to *all* or *any* of the cases, to which it was at first intended to be applied. Thus the law of 5 *Eliz.* c. 20. against *gypsies*, for instance, was obsolete for many years before its repeal by 23 *Geo.* III. c. 51. Now, though a law, which is partly obsolete, is binding on the conscience as to that part, in which it is not obsolete, that is, in those cases, to which it may fairly be presumed to be the will of the legislature still to apply it; yet no one will say, that a law, which is wholly obsolete, is at all binding. I make these observations, not as being peculiarly applicable to the question before us, but with a view to show, generally, that it is to no purpose to refer us to the intention of a preceding legislature respecting any law, unless it be also made out, that the present legislature adopts that intention as its own. With respect to the question of subscription, it is necessary to distinguish between the obligation to subscribe the *articles*, and the obligation to subscribe them in a particular *sense*. The legislature for the time being, in continuing the Act of the 13 *Eliz.* c. 12. imposes the first; but the governors of the church, acting under the authority of the legislature, are to direct the second. The Act of 13 *Eliz.* requires candidates for holy orders to subscribe the thirty-nine articles, and directs, that "no ecclesiastical person shall advisedly maintain or affirm any doctrine directly contrary or repugnant to the thirty-nine articles." By virtue of which, the governors of the church cannot, so long as that Act, or others requiring and directing the same things, shall remain unrepealed, authorize any such persons to omit subscription, or to maintain or affirm any "doctrine directly contrary or repugnant to the thirty-nine articles;" because the governors of the church have no authority to do any thing contrary to the laws, customs, and statutes of the realm. It does not appear, however, that the legislature ever assumed to itself the right of fixing the *sense* of the thirty-nine articles; but rather that it intended, as in reason it ought, to leave that matter to the judgment of the governors of the church for the time being; that is, to the convocation of both houses acting under the king's assent; for this, as is asserted in the 139th canon, is "the true church of *England* by representation." Besides, as words are the expressions of opinions, and as, in the course of time, some change in the meaning of words must necessarily take place, there is need of a standing provision against the errors in opinion, into which a change in the meaning of words might otherwise lead men; and, in the case before us, this provision could not any where be so properly placed, as in the judgment of the governors of the church for the time being. Though, therefore, agreeably to what Dr. *Powell* says, the governors of the church have no power to dispense with subscription to the articles, or to alter the articles themselves, they have power to determine the sense, in which subscription to them is to be received. This is confirmed, if not in a manner proved, by the *declarations*, *injunctions*, and *directions* which, from time to time, have been issued by the king, as supreme head of the church, to the archbishops and bishops; particularly by the *decla-*

ration of king *Charles* I. in which it is expressly said, that "the bishops and clergy from time to time in convocation, upon their humble desire, shall have licence, under our broad seal, to deliberate of and to do all such things, as, being made plain by them, and assented unto by us, shall concern the settled continuance of the doctrine and discipline of the church of *England* now established." In the same *declaration*, a prohibition occurs, with respect to the *sense* of the articles, "to preach or print any thing either way, other than is already established in convocation with our royal assent;" which is a virtual acknowledgment of a right vested in the convocation acting under the royal assent, to determine the sense of the articles; and, if that right was vested in the king and convocation of that day, it is undoubtedly vested in the king and convocation of the present day. Whatever, then, is the sense, in which the governors of the church for the time being allow, or may reasonably be supposed to allow, to be affixed to any article, that is to be considered as the true sense of it, or the sense, in which subscription to it may lawfully be made. Whether, since the articles were first framed, improvements in theological knowledge have been made, which may render it proper to affix a different sense on any article or not, it may very fairly be presumed to be the intention of the legislature at that time, and of the legislature at all times, that an opening should be left for such improvements, and for the effects, which they are naturally calculated to produce. If, for instance, by the third article, in which Christ's descent into *hell* is asserted, it be now understood, that his soul went into the place of *departed souls*, and the compilers of the articles, or the governors of the church in the time of *Elizabeth*, understood by it, either that his body was deposited in the *grave*, or that his soul went into the place of *torment*, can it be imagined, that any sanction, given by the legislature of *Elizabeth* to either of these senses, ought to hinder the governors of the church from allowing the article to be subscribed in the former sense? "That person," says *Bennet*, "who subscribes the word *hell* in a sense, which the church allows, though it be different from what it bears in some other places, or perhaps from what was first intended by the convocation itself, does very honestly." So also, if it could be made appear, which, I believe, it cannot, that the Calvinistic sense of certain articles was that, in which the governors of the church formerly understood, and wished to impose them, it would not follow, that we have not the liberty of subscribing to them in the sense, in which the present governors of the church may allow them to be understood, though that sense be not Calvinistic. I do not undertake to say what *is* the sense, in which the present governors of the church allow subscription to any particular article. That is not the business now before us. It is sufficient to say, that, since the clergy have been exhorted by the king, as supreme head of the church, to shut up all disputes in the "general meaning of the articles;" that meaning, as Dr. *Powell* explains it, "which, in some curious points of controversy, persons of every denomination have supposed to be on their side;" since it has been considered by him as matter of rejoicing, that "men of all sorts take the articles of the church of *England* to be for them;" and since these sentiments have never been disavowed, it is something more than probable, that the governors

vernors of the church allow the articles to be so understood, as to comprehend some *variety* of senses. If so, all those senses, in the view in which we are now considering them, have an equal claim to be admitted as true; for they all, though different in themselves, equally agree with that, which, in this case, is the proper standard of their truth.'

These remarks appear ingenious and liberal: but the mind is rarely pleased with itself when it is forced to employ such kind of casuistry; and granting it to be admissible, consistently with the purest morality, in its full extent, what is the utility of subscription, or how can it be the support of any system whatever? If a distinction is to be made between subscribing to *articles* and subscribing to their *sense*, the affair of subscription is completely nugatory, and even farcical. Supposing, moreover, that the sense of the articles is not fixed by the legislature; how unmeaning is that Act which directs that no ecclesiastical person shall maintain any doctrine *repugnant* to them? If their sense is to vary in different ages, how can they be said to promote uniformity, or to have any 'proper standard of their truth?' There can be little sound logic in such attempts; and however a divine may contrive to satisfy himself, by adroitness of argumentation, in subscribing a certain form in a sense different from its obvious and literal meaning, he would have been much better pleased if the necessity for such a subscription had not existed. The conversion of articles of *faith* into articles of *peace* may be deemed a happy thought: but the "sturdy moralist" will not sanction it by his *imprimatur;* though he may sigh over the hard case of those who are forced to avail themselves of such an expedient. It is curious to observe the contrarieties which stare us in the face on this subject. The articles are expressly asserted to be set forth for the purpose of preventing diversity of opinion; and yet it is said, that the governors of the church allow the articles to be so understood as to comprehend some *variety* of senses: that is, the very thing is allowed *in* subscription, for the prevention of which subscription is required. We recommend to Mr. P. the re-consideration of this subject; for pure morality is not always promoted by ingenuity.

Some good observations occur on *Resentment*, *Anger*, and *Revenge;* especially on the last: but for these and other moral strictures, we must refer to the work; concluding this article with expressing a wish that Mr. P. may be encouraged to publish the remaining part of his Annotations.

ART. IV. *Natural Theology:* or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature. By William Paley, D. D. Archdeacon of Carlisle. Fifth Edition. 8vo. pp. 586. Boards. Faulder. 1803.

WHEN it is asserted that Ignorance is the mother of Devotion, an insinuation is conveyed which is not more dishonourable to Religion than unfounded in Truth; for though Science is inimical to Superstition, it is very far from cherishing any hostility towards rational piety. Smatterers in philosophy, indeed, are apt to indulge in presumptuous conclusions, at which the friends of Religion have often taken alarm: but we are inclined to think that the impression, which these opinions have made, has been less considerable than it was apprehended to be. Since, however, all errors which have a dangerous aspect ought to be combated, we highly applaud the efforts of those who labour to give our thoughts a right direction, and to secure the rising generation against those sceptical and atheistical principles which may be disseminated in any of the writings or fashionable theories of the day. We cannot call these principles *novelties*, because they have often appeared and have been as often exploded: but, as at every repetition they are obtruded under the shape of discoveries in science, they are necessarily encountered with reiterated confutations.

Towards the beginning of the last century, many admirable defences of Natural Religion and Revelation appeared, which the boldness of Infidelity rendered expedient; and in the Sermons preached at Boyle's Lecture, and other publications of that period, the idea of Dr. Paley, in the work before us, was in a great measure anticipated. *Bentley's Sermons against Atheism; Clarke's Demonstration; Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation; Derham's Physico and Astro Theology;* together with *Abernethy's Discourses on the Attributes;* &c. &c. &c.; establish the great principles of Religion independently of Revelation:—but, of all the writings to which we allude, Derham's Physico-Theology bears the nearest resemblance in its plan to the Essay before us; forming, according to its title, "A Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God from the Works of Creation." We do not, however, mean to intimate that Dr. Paley has been a plagiarist; nor that the value of his Evidences is diminished by the labours of his predecessors. Their object was the same, they reasoned on the same ground, and they arrived nearly at the same conclusions: but, since Derham's time, Science has made a wonderful progress; and it is of importance to prove to the world that the advancement of true philosophy seems to strengthen our

our belief in the Existence of God, and of those Divine Perfections in which Natural and Revealed Religion must originate. Derham was encouraged in his undertaking by the patronage of Dr. Tennison, Archbishop of Canterbury, to whom he dedicates his Physico-Theology; and Dr. Paley, in his Dedication to the Bishop of Durham, (Dr. Barrington,) avows that he engaged in his present work at the recommendation of his Lordship. With this volume, Dr. P. has finished a series of valuable publications, making together a complete system; though, as he justly remarks, they ought to be read in the inverse order of their appearance; in which case, they will present, 1. Evidences of Natural Religion. 2. Evidences of Revealed Religion. 3. An Account of the Duties which result from both. Convinced of the infinite importance of a well-established faith in the principles of Natural Religion, and aware of the attempts which have been made to shake that faith by some, and to undervalue it by others, we regard this Disquisition from the pen of Dr. Paley as a very seasonable publication; and we are happy in thinking that the ability, with which it is executed, will insure it an extensive circulation.

It is impossible for us to comprehend the Nature of God: but his existence is sufficiently demonstrable, if we attend to those innumerable marks of design, and of adaptation of means to ends, which are so visible in the material universe; and though this general sentiment has been resisted by some individuals, both in antient and modern times, their efforts have been uniformly lame and unsatisfactory. In order to exclude the interference of a Creator, they have introduced Atoms and Organic Particles, which must be endued with a kind of intelligence and predilection, or be accompanied each by an attendant Sylph, to perform the task which is assigned to them; and, to explain the beauty and harmony of the creation, we are referred to the jumble of Atoms *, and to the surprising feats which may be performed by a happy combination of matter and motion. Cicero's answer to this idea is striking and conclusive, though it may not satisfy those who deal in infinite combinations, and in infinities of infinites. "Can any one (says he) suppose that, if innumerable sets of the letters of the alphabet were rattled together, and thrown on the ground ever so often, he should see them in any of these throws assuming the form of the Annals of Ennius? If, moreover, a world can be produced by a concourse of atoms, why cannot a portico, a temple, a house, or a city, be effected by the same means, which are

* *Mundum effici ornatissimum et pulcherrimum ex eorum corporum concursione fortuitâ.* Cic. *de Nat. Deor.*

works less operose and more easy?" The conclusion drawn hence cannot be resisted, except by denying that the Universe displays those proofs of a previous plan and design which are apparent in the productions of human art, and in pieces of mechanism. Here the Atheist and Theist are fairly at issue, and Dr. Paley pleads the cause of the latter with complete success. He does not, indeed, remove every difficulty, which is absolutely impossible in our state of limited knowlege: but he adduces facts sufficient to establish his position, and does not attempt to prove too much.

Dr. P. commences his discussion by stating the argument in a clear and popular manner:

'In crossing a heath, suppose I pitched my foot against a *stone*, and were asked how the stone came to be there, I might possibly answer, that, for any thing I knew to the contrary, it had lain there for ever: nor would it perhaps be very easy to shew the absurdity of this answer. But suppose I had found a *watch* upon the ground, and it should be enquired how the watch happened to be in that place, I should hardly think of the answer which I had before given, that, for any thing I knew, the watch might have always been there. Yet why should not this answer serve for the watch, as well as for the stone? Why is it not as admissible in the second case, as in the first? For this reason, and for no other, viz. that when we come to inspect the watch, we perceive (what we could not discover in the stone) that its several parts are framed and put together for a purpose, e. g. that they are so formed and adjusted as to produce motion, and that motion so regulated as to point out the hour of the day; that, if the several parts had been differently shaped from what they are, of a different size from what they are, or placed after any other manner, or in any other order, than that in which they are placed, either no motion at all would have been carried on in the machine, or none which would have answered the use, that is now served by it.'—'This mechanism being observed (it requires indeed an examination of the instrument, and perhaps some previous knowledge of the subject, to perceive and understand it; but being once, as we have said, observed and understood), the inference, we think, is inevitable; that the watch must have had a maker; that there must have existed, at some time and at some place or other, an artificer or artificers; who formed it for the purpose which we find it actually to answer; who comprehended its construction, and designed its use.'

'Suppose, in the next place, that the person, who found the watch, should, after some time, discover, that, in addition to all the properties which he had hitherto observed in it, it possessed the unexpected property of producing, in the course of its movement, another watch like itself; (the thing is conceivable;) that it contained within it a mechanism, a system of parts, a mould for instance, or a complex adjustment of laths, files, and other tools, evidently and separately calculated for this purpose; let us enquire, what effect ought such a discovery to have upon his former conclusion.'

'The

'The conclusion which the *first* examination of the watch, of its works, construction, and movement suggested, was, that it must have had, for the cause and author of that construction, an artificer, who understood its mechanism, and designed its use. This conclusion is invincible. A *second* examination presents us with a new discovery. The watch is found, in the course of its movement, to produce another watch, similar to itself: and not only so, but we perceive in it a system of organization, separately calculated for that purpose. What effect would this discovery have, or ought it to have, upon our former inference? What, as hath already been said, but to increase, beyond measure, our admiration of the skill, which had been employed in the formation of such a machine? Or shall it, instead of this, all at once turn us round to an opposite conclusion, viz. that no art or skill whatever has been concerned in the business, although all other evidences of art and skill remain as they were, and this last and supreme piece of art be now added to the rest? Can this be maintained without absurdity? Yet this is atheism.'

The Doctor then advances to the application of his hypothesis; affirming, as the proposition to be demonstrated, that,

'Every manifestation of design, which existed in the watch, exists in the works of nature; with the difference, on the side of nature, of being greater and more, and that in a degree which exceeds all computation. I mean that the contrivances of nature surpass the contrivances of art, in the complexity, subtilety, and curiosity of the mechanism; and still more, if possible, do they go beyond them in number and variety: yet, in a multitude of cases, are not less evidently mechanical, not less evidently contrivances, not less evidently accommodated to their end, or suited to their office, than are the most perfect productions of human ingenuity.'

To impress conviction on the mind, in this respect, a rich variety of facts taken from natural history is adduced; and we are entertained with accounts of the succession of plants and animals, and of their functions mechanical and immechanical. To bring the matter home to ourselves, the arrangement discoverable in the human frame is particularly discussed; and Dr. Paley is so firmly persuaded of the irresistible force of the argument drawn from this source alone, that, if called to choose his ground, in the contest against Atheism, he would make his stand in human Anatomy. The structure of those wonderful organs, the Eye and the Ear, is amusingly detailed; and the Argument cumulative is thus exhibited in chap. 6:

'Were there no example in the world of contrivance, except that of the *eye*, it would be alone sufficient to support the conclusion which we draw from it, as to the necessity of an intelligent Creator. It could never be got rid of: because it could not be accounted for by any other supposition, which did not contradict all the principles we possess of knowledge; the principles according to which, things do, as often as they can be brought to the test of experience, turn out to

to be true or false. Its coats and humours, constructed, as the lenses of a telescope are constructed, for the refraction of rays of light to a point, which forms the proper action of the organ; the provision in its muscular tendons for turning its pupil to the object, similar to that which is given to the telescope by screws, and upon which power of direction in the eye, the exercise of its office as an optical instrument depends; the further provision for its defence, for its constant lubricity and moisture, which we see in its socket and its lids, in its gland for the secretion of the matter of tears, its outlet or communication with the nose for carrying off the liquid after the eye is washed with it; these provisions compose altogether an apparatus, a system of parts, a preparation of means, so manifest in their design, so exquisite in their contrivance, so successful in their issue, so precious and so infinitely beneficial in their use, as, in my opinion, to bear down all doubt that can be raised upon the subject. And what I wish, under the title of the present chapter, to observe, is, that, if other parts of nature were inaccessible to our inquiries, or even if other parts of nature presented nothing to our examination but disorder and confusion, the validity of this example would remain the same. If there were but one watch in the world, it would not be less certain that it had a maker. If we had never in our lives seen any but one single kind of hydraulic machine; yet, if of that one kind we understood the mechanism and use, we should be as perfectly assured that it proceeded from the hand, and thought, and skill of a workman, as if we visited a museum of the arts, and saw collected there twenty different kinds of machines for drawing water, or a thousand different kinds for other purposes. Of this point each machine is a proof independently of all the rest. So it is with the evidences of a divine agency. The proof is not a conclusion, which lies at the end of a chain of reasoning, of which chain each instance of contrivance is only a link, and of which, if one link fail, the whole falls; but it is an argument separately supplied by every separate example. An error in stating an example affects only that example. The argument is cumulative in the fullest sense of that term. The eye proves it without the ear; the ear without the eye. The proof in each example is complete; for when the design of the part, and the conduciveness of its structure to that design, is shewn, the mind may set itself at rest: no future consideration can detract any thing from the force of the example.'

The Bones and their moveable Joints, the Muscles and their action, and the Vessels of the human frame, with their various functions and fluids, are examined with an instructive minuteness. In speaking of the Tongue, including *the parts of the Mouth*, Dr. Paley takes occasion to combat a position of the late Mr. John Hunter; who asserted, in his Treatise on the *Lues Venerea*, that whenever Nature attempts to accomplish two or more purposes by one instrument, she does both or all imperfectly:

'Is this true (Dr. P asks) of the tongue regarded as an instrument of speech, and of taste; or regarded as an instrument of speech, of taste, and

and of deglutition? So much otherwise, that many persons, that is to say, nine hundred and ninety-nine persons out of a thousand, by the instrumentality of this one organ, talk, and taste, and swallow, very well. In fact, the constant warmth and moisture of the tongue, the thinness of the skin, the papillæ upon its surface, qualify this organ for its office of tasting, as much as its inextricable multiplicity of fibres do for the rapid movements which are necessary to speech. Animals which feed upon grass, have their tongues covered with a perforated skin, so as to admit the dissolved food to the papillæ underneath, which, in the mean time, remain defended from the rough action of the unbruised spiculæ.

'There are brought together within the cavity of the mouth more distinct uses, and parts executing more distinct offices, than I think can be found lying so near to one another, or within the same compass, in any other portion of the body: viz. teeth of different shape, first for cutting, secondly for grinding: muscles, most artificially disposed for carrying on the compound motion of the lower jaw, half lateral and half vertical, by which the mill is worked: fountains of saliva, springing up in different parts of the cavity for the moistening of the food, whilst the mastication is going on: glands, to feed the fountains: a muscular constriction of a very peculiar kind in the back part of the cavity, for the guiding of the prepared aliment into its passage towards the stomach, and in many cases for carrying it along that passage: for, although we may imagine this to be done simply by the weight of the food itself, it in truth is not so even in the upright posture of the human neck; and most evidently is not the case with quadrupeds, with a horse for instance, in which, when pasturing, the food is thrust upward by muscular strength, instead of descending of its own accord.

'In the mean time, and within the same cavity, is going on another business, altogether different from what is here described, that of respiration and speech. In addition therefore to all that has been mentioned, we have a passage opened, from this cavity to the lungs, for the admission of air, exclusively of every other substance: we have muscles, some in the larynx, and without number in the tongue, for the purpose of modulating that air in its passage, with a variety, a compass, and precision, of which no other musical instrument is capable. And, lastly, which in my opinion crowns the whole as a piece of machinery, we have a specific contrivance for dividing the pneumatic part from the mechanical, and for preventing one set of actions interfering with the other. Where various functions are united, the difficulty is to guard against the inconveniencies of a too great complexity. In no apparatus put together by art, and for the purposes of art, do I know such multifarious uses so aptly combined as in the natural organization of the human mouth; or where the structure, compared with the uses, is so simple. The mouth, with all these intentions to serve, is a single cavity; is one machine; with its parts neither crowded nor confused, and each unembarrassed by the rest; each at least at liberty in a degree sufficient for the end to be attained. If we cannot eat and sing at the same moment, we can eat one

one moment and sing the next; the respiration proceeding freely all the while.

'There is one case however of this double office, and that of the *earliest* necessity, which the mouth alone could not perform; and that is, carrying on together the two actions of sucking and breathing. Another route therefore is opened for the air, namely, through the nose, which lets the breath pass backward and forward, whilst the lips, in the act of sucking, are necessarily shut close upon the body, from which the nutriment is drawn. This is a circumstance, which always appeared to me worthy of notice. The nose would have been necessary, although it had not been the organ of smelling. The making it the seat of a sense was superadding a new use to a part already wanted; was taking a wise advantage of an antecedent and a constitutional necessity.'

Having considered the constituent parts of the animal frame, and stated his remarks on them separately, Dr. P. finishes with adverting to their collective action; observing that the wisdom of God is seen in their mutual subserviency and dependence, in their contributing *together* to one effect and one use.

The chapters on the *Animal Structure* regarded as a Mass; on Comparative Anatomy; on Peculiar Organizations; on Prospective Contrivances; on Relations of parts to parts; and on Compensations; are most interesting Lectures on Natural History: but in selecting from so copious a repast, we are under the necessity of omitting much that is excellent.

We have always thought that the argument in favour of a designing Cause, as the origin of the Universe, acquires additional strength from the *fitness* of one part of nature to another, if we may so express ourselves, or from the relation which animated bodies bear to inanimate nature, and *vice versâ*. The wings of birds possess a relation to the air, the fins of fish to the water, and the eye to light. Things are proportioned to one another, and animals are furnished with appropriate food, and suited to their respective elements. Dr. P. adduces the following striking instance of designed appropriation:

'To the singular element of *light*, an organ is adapted, an instrument is correctly adjusted, not less peculiar amongst the parts of the body, not less singular in its form and in the substance of which it is composed, not less remote from the materials, the model, and the analogy of any other part of the animal frame, than the element, to which it relates, is specific amidst the substances with which we converse. If this does not prove appropriation, I desire to know what would prove it.

'Yet the element of light and the organ of vision, however related in their office and use, have no connection whatever in their original. The action of rays of light upon the surfaces of animals has no tendency to breed eyes in their heads. The sun might shine for ever upon living bodies without the smallest approach towards producing the

the sense of sight. On the other hand, also, the animal eye does *not* generate or emit light.'

A chapter is employed on Instincts, and another on the Insect tribe; from the last of which we shall take one specimen:

'If the reader, looking to our distributions of science, wish to contemplate the chemistry, as well as the mechanism of nature, the insect creation will afford him an example. I refer to the light in the tail of a *glow-worm*. Two points seem to be agreed upon by naturalists concerning it: first, that it is phosphoric; secondly, that its use is to attract the male insect. The only thing to be enquired after, is the singularity, if any such there be, in the natural history of this animal, which should render a provision of this kind more necessary for *it*, than for other insects. That singularity seems to be the difference, which subsists between the male and the female; which difference is greater than what we find in any other species of animal whatever. The glow-worm is a female *caterpillar*; the male of which is a *fly*; lively, comparatively small, dissimilar to the female in appearance, probably also as distinguished from her in habits, pursuits, and manners, as he is unlike in form and external constitution. Here then is the adversity of the case. The caterpillar cannot meet her companion in the air. The winged rover disdains the ground. They might never therefore be brought together, did not this radiant torch direct the volatile mate to his sedentary female.

'In this example we also see the resources of art anticipated. One grand operation of chemistry is the making of phosphorus; and it was thought an ingenious device, to make phosphoric matches supply the place of lighted tapers. Now this very thing is done in the body of the glow-worm. The phosphorus is not only made, but kindled: and caused to emit a steady and genial beam, for the purpose which is here stated, and which I believe to be the true one.'

This account of the Glow-worm, in addition to the purpose for which it is related, may serve to afford the poet a brilliant idea: for what is it but Nature's Hymeneal torch?

After having examined the properties and economy of Plants, the author next treats of the Elements, and then takes a short notice of Astronomy; though his opinion has always been that 'Astronomy is *not* the best medium through which to prove the agency of an intelligent Creator.' Its objects are not so much within the sphere of our examination as those already discussed: yet, so far as our knowlege reaches, they not only manifest the stupendous power and glory of the Deity, but exhibit the most striking proofs of wisdom, order, and regularity. We do not comprehend the force of Dr. Paley's remark (p. 410.) that 'the heavenly bodies do not, except in the case of Saturn's ring, present themselves to our observation as compounded of parts at all.' Does not the solar system present itself to us as a whole compounded of parts, bearing an indisputable relation to each other? Are not our Earth and its

 Moon,

Moon, Jupiter and Saturn, and their Satellites, subordinate wholes compounded of parts? We know, it must be confessed, but little of astronomy; yet it is matter of real admiration that we understand so much as we do.

Having proved the pre-existence of Contrivance by his elaborate examination of the works of Nature, Dr. Paley observes that the primary doctrines of Natural Religion necessarily follow: the first of which is the Personality of the Deity, the second is his Unity, and the third is his Goodness: since contrivance implies a Contriver; the uniformity of plan or design exhibited in the works of Nature indicates the unity of the Deity; and from their beneficial tendency, as far as we can understand them, as well as from the existence of pleasurable sensations, his Benevolence or Goodness in course results. His Natural Attributes, viz. his Omnipotence, Omniscience, Eternity, Self-Existence, and Spirituality, are necessarily included in the doctrine of the Divine Existence.

Those objections which have been urged against the Goodness of God, and those difficulties which occur to us in attempting to refer all the appointments and operations of Nature to this cause, are fairly stated and discussed by Dr. Paley. He makes some observations on the two cases of *venomous* animals, and of animals *preying* on each other, to vindicate this economy as directed to ends of undisputed utility. On the first, he remarks that the faculty of inflicting venomous bites and stings is *good*, if regard be had to animals possessing it; and that in reference to their prey, it may serve to shorten the pain of death. Frogs and Mice may be swallowed alive by vipers without this mode of destroying them. But why are animals appointed to devour one another? An answer is prepared to this question, by which Dr. P. endeavours to shew that, as a general provision, this cannot be regarded as an evil. He observes that, without death, there could be no generation, no sexes, no parental relation, *i. e.* as things are constituted, no animal happiness; and that, considering the condition of brutes, who do every thing for themselves, as they must be robbed of life, it is preferable that it should be effected by the system of pursuit and prey, than that they should be tormented with gradual dissolution. He subjoins, however, another and more weighty reason:

'To do justice to the question, the system of animal *destruction* ought always to be considered in strict connection with another property of animal nature, viz. *superfecundity*. They are countervailing qualities. One subsists by the correction of the other. In treating, therefore, of the subject under this view, (which is, I believe, the true one,) our business will be, first, to point out the advantages which

which are gained by the powers in nature of a superabundant multiplication; and, then, to shew, that these advantages are so many reasons for appointing that system of animal hostilities, which we are endeavouring to account for.

'In almost all cases nature produces her supplies with profusion. A single cod fish spawns, in one season, a greater number of eggs, than all the inhabitants of England amount to. A thousand other instances of prolific generation might be stated, which, though not equal to this, would carry on the increase of the species with a rapidity which outruns calculation, and to an immeasurable extent. The advantages of such a constitution are two: first, that it tends to keep the world always full; whilst, secondly, it allows the proportion between the several species of animals to be differently modified; as different purposes require, or as different situations may afford for them room and food. Where this vast fecundity meets with a vacancy fitted to receive the species, there it operates with its whole effect; there it pours in its numbers, and replenishes the waste.'—

'This *superfecundity*, though of great occasional use and importance, exceeds the ordinary capacity of nature to receive or support its progeny. All superabundance supposes destruction, or must destroy itself. Perhaps there is no species of terrestrial animals whatever, which would not overrun the earth, if it were permitted to multiply in perfect safety; or of fish, which would not fill the ocean: at least, if any single species were left to their natural increase without disturbance or restraint, the food of other species would be exhausted by their maintenance. It is necessary, therefore, that the effects of such prolific faculties be curtailed.'—

'What further shews, that the system of destruction amongst animals holds an express relation to the system of fecundity; that they are parts indeed of one compensatory scheme, is, that, in each species, the fecundity bears a proportion to the smallness of the animal, to the weakness, to the shortness of its natural term of life, and to the dangers and enemies by which it is surrounded. An elephant produces but one calf: a butterfly lays six hundred eggs. Birds of prey seldom produce more than two eggs: the sparrow tribe, and the duck tribe, frequently sit upon a dozen. In the rivers we meet with a thousand minnows for one pike; in the sea, a million of herrings for a single shark. Compensation obtains throughout. Defencelessness and devastation are repaired by fecundity.

'We have dwelt the longer upon these considerations, because, the subject to which they apply, namely, that of animals *devouring* one another, forms the chief, if not the only instance in the works of the Deity, of an œconomy, stamped by marks of design, in which the character of utility can be called in question. The case of *venomous* animals is of much inferior consequence to the case of prey, and, in some degree, is also included under it.'

Though Dr. P. does not attempt an universal solution of the Origin of Evil, his views of this subject are extremely rational and consolatory. Our minds are somewhat reconciled to Imperfections,

perfections, pain, disease, death, and external evils, when they are contemplated through this philosophic medium.

The *distinctions* of civil life, he observes, are liable to be regarded as evils 'by those who *sit* under them, but in my opinion with very little reason;' and his explanation conveys so excellent a moral lesson, that we are induced to transcribe it:

'In the first place, the advantages which the higher conditions of life are supposed to confer, bear no proportion in value to the advantages which are bestowed by nature. The gifts of nature always surpass the gifts of fortune. How much, for example, is activity better than attendance; beauty than dress; appetite, digestion, and tranquil bowels, than the artifices of cookery, or than forced, costly, or far-fetched dainties!

'It is not necessary to contend, that the advantages derived from wealth are none, (under due regulations they are certainly considerable,) but that they are not greater than they ought to be. *Money* is the sweetener of human toil; the substitute for coercion; the reconciler of labour with liberty. It is, moreover, the stimulant of enterprise in all projects and undertakings, as well as of diligence in the most beneficial arts and employments. Now did affluence, when possessed, contribute nothing to happiness, or nothing beyond the mere supply of necessaries; and the secret should come to be discovered; we might be in danger of losing great part of the uses, which are, at present, derived to us through this important medium. Not only would the tranquillity of social life be put in peril by the want of a motive to attach men to their private concerns; but the satisfaction which all men receive from success in their respective occupations, which collectively constitutes the great mass of human comfort, would be done away in its very principle.

'With respect to *station*, as it is distinguished from riches, whether it confer authority over others, or be invested with honors which apply solely to sentiment and imagination, the truth is, that what is gained by rising through the ranks of life, is not more than sufficient to draw forth the exertions of those who are engaged in the pursuits which lead to advancement, and which, in general, are such as ought to be encouraged. Distinctions of this sort are subjects much more of competition than of enjoyment: and in that competition their use consists. It is not, as hath been rightly observed, by what the *Lord Mayor* feels in his coach, but by what the *apprentice* feels who gazes at him, that the public is served.'

Another difficulty with which Natural Theology is pressed, arising from so great an appearance of *chance* in the world, is well obviated by this rational Philosopher; who, in searching for a general solution of all those objections to the Divine Goodness which have been deduced from the evils of the present life, refers us to a view of it as a state of probation:

'We

'We assert the most probable supposition to be, that it is a state of moral probation; and that many things in it suit with this hypothesis, which suit with no other. It is not a state of unmixed happiness, or of happiness simply: it is not a state of designed misery, or of misery simply: it is not a state of retribution: it is not a state of punishment. It suits with none of these suppositions. It accords much better with the idea of its being a condition calculated for the production, exercise, and improvement, of moral qualities, with a view to a future state, in which these qualities, after being so produced, exercised, and improved, may, by a new and more favoring constitution of things, receive their reward, or become their own. If it be said, that this is to enter upon a religious rather than a philosophical consideration, I answer that the name of religion ought to form no objection, if it shall turn out to be the case, that the more religious our views are, the more probability they contain. The degree of beneficence, of benevolent intention, and of power, exercised in the construction of sensitive beings, goes strongly in favor, not only of a creative, but of a continuing care, that is, of a ruling Providence. The degree of chance which appears to prevail in the world requires to be reconciled with this hypothesis. Now it is one thing to maintain the doctrine of Providence along with that of a future state, and another thing without it. In my opinion, the two doctrines must stand or fall together.'

Connected with the doctrine of a Future State, is that of the Resurrection of the Body; to which Dr. P. discovers something analogous in the economy of Nature. In this respect, however, he is not original, and will not be generally deemed satisfactory. If he may be thought to have pushed his argument too far in some instances, and not far enough in others, he must be acknowleged so to have prosecuted his undertaking as to have added an additional laurel to his brow. In this volume, he may be said to have demonstrated the most important truths, to have induced us to view the Universe as the temple of the Deity, and to have inspired us with rational and indelible sentiments of Adoration. It must be delightful to the pious mind, to trace the perfections of the Creator written on the works of his hand; and to be assured that it is as much a principle of sound Philosophy as of Revelation, that *Religion is Wisdom.*

ART. V. *The History of the Wars which arose out of the French Revolution:* To which is prefixed, a Review of the Causes of that Event. By Alexander Stephens, of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple, Esq. 2 Vols. Large Quarto, fine Paper. pp. nearly 700 in each. 3l. 3s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

To detail the particulars of a warfare so extensive, so peculiar in its nature, and so important in its consequences,

as that which began with the declaration of war by France against the King of Hungary and Bohemia, and which closed with the treaty of Amiens, is certainly not an ordinary undertaking. The man who imposes on himself so arduous a task ought to be a favourite of the historic Muse, should possess skill in composition, be master of a simple flowing style, and yet have glowing language at command; he ought to have industry to brave the trouble necessary to clear up doubts, and to reconcile seeming contradictions, in order to form a luminous and consistent narrative; he should be endowed with sagacity to sound the measures of cabinets, the secret plans of commanders, and the deliberations of military councils; his mind, devoted to truth alone, ought to be superior to bias; his habits and studies should be such as are adapted to his subject; he ought to be well informed respecting the places which were the scenes of the exploits related, and he should have lived in habitual intercourse with the leaders and principal actors in the great drama which he sketches.

How far this member of an honourable society, who offers the present volumes to public notice, stands thus qualified for the high character in which he ventures to appear, our readers shall be enabled to judge by the extracts which we shall lay before them. For ourselves, however, we cannot refrain from declaring, that we discover in his pages little of the enthusiasm of genius, no indications of his having consumed the midnight oil in poring over the great masters of the historic art, no traces of that *improbus labor* so essentially requisite in the province which he has assumed, no zeal like that of old Froissart, nor any sagacity such as that which surprized the Duc d'Epernon when perusing the relations of Davila: nor can we acquit him altogether on the score of fidelity, since omissions occur in his accounts which must be ascribed to partiality; while it may be presumed that the purlieus of the Temple, and the contests of Westminster Hall, do not supply the best school for forming an historian of the revolutionary war.

The work is certainly extensive, and it is magnificent in its paper, type, &c.: but it seems to us to be principally a digest of former publications on the subject; though, at the same time, some of the most able and authentic of them have escaped notice. We have also to complain that the connection of the military with the civil history is not sufficiently traced; that, in the chain of events, important links are broken; that interesting traits are overlooked; and that the whole consists too much of a general abstract narrative.

If, however, we cannot allow to this performance, as a whole, the claim of superior merit, many of its parts de-

serve

serve commendation; and if the style cannot boast of high finish, it is in general clear and easy, and often animated. In several respects, the work forms a convenient repository, and will be deemed interesting and satisfactory by the great bulk of readers: but it might have been more acceptable in a modest and cheaper form, than in its present appearance in a garb of splendour, which becomes only the productions of eminent talents, and will recommend it only to those who consider a library merely as furniture.

If an author happens not to set any great value on his own labour, he should recollect that some of his readers may have no time to throw away, and that the price of books is high. Had these reflections duly operated on the mind of Mr. Stephens, he would probably have confined himself, in his elaborate preliminary discourse, to the immediate causes of the revolution; and would have spared himself the trouble of sketching the state of Europe from the time of the Romans to the present day.—It cannot be denied, to use the words of this author, that a large portion of Europe applauded the first attempts of the French to meliorate their political situation: but it may well be supposed that they regarded more the object, than the means used to attain it. If wise and good men, not examining narrowly the proceedings of the French agitators, gave their approbation to the early stages of the revolution, we do not see how it is possible that they should at this day feel pleasure in the recollection of them, or (with the author) refer to them with satisfaction, and talk of the glories of the 14th of July. At the moment, they were joyfully hailed because there was room for hoping that they might produce good: but now that their fruits have been seen, we are at a loss to conjecture what that ground can be, which can lead a rational being to describe them in the language of exultation. The historian of the revolutionary wars must, above all others, be aware of the incalculable ills which they produced to France and to Europe; of the check (probably fatal) which they gave to the ameliorations which at that period were progressive in every civilized state; of their having led to the overthrow of several independent governments, to the extinction of some of the most free and prosperous communities; and of their having terminated in the subjugation of the French nation itself, by creating an usurpation which, as it respects its subjects, has proved the most despotic and tyrannical,—which, as it respects foreign powers, seems by its very nature the permanent adversary of the spirit and arts of peace,—and which dissembles not its hostility against the remaining liberties and independence of Europe.

With many others, Mr. Stephens appears to be carried away by admiration for the Girondist faction: but, whatever might have been the merits of individuals, or the professions of the party, it is demonstrable that their ambition knew no bounds. We see that it led them to countenance the anarchists, whose victims they at length became, in opposition to the constitutionalists; that it induced them not merely to abet, but to instigate the insurrection of the 10th of August; to remain tranquil amid the horrors of that day, which proved not less fatal to their power than to the throne; to offer no opposition to, if they did not even share in, the legal murders which followed it; to be tame spectators of the massacres of September; and, in common with the partisans of Robespierre, to imbrue their hands in the blood of their monarch. The author is undoubtedly censurable for having drawn his materials solely from the advocates of the revolution, and for having overlooked those which were to be collected from the writings of respectable royalists and the consular courtiers. Had he perused the volumes of M. Bertrand de Moleville, or carefully examined the denunciations made in the legislative assembly itself, he would hardly have spoken of the Austrian committee as any thing else than a mere chimera.

Though the following picture of the political state of France, under the old government, is highly charged, truth will not justify us in softening it down in any great degree:

'A multitude of grievances existed, delinquencies of the most criminal nature had been long perpetrated with impunity, and the abuses were so numerous as to extend to every department of the state, and every province of the empire. The monarch affected to unite in his own person the executive and legislative authorities, and often interfered in the judicial administration. The finances were reduced to the most deplorable condition; and the nation, forgetting the immense expenditure of the late war, and the expensive schemes entered into for obtaining a port in the Channel, contemplated the profusion of the court, as the sole cause of their misery. The parliaments, although of late the victorious defenders of their own and the people's rights, had not always been able to withstand the blaze of majesty; and a royal session might at any time have rendered a determined king paramount to all resistance.

'The nation was thus left naked and defenceless, while the crown was armed with the support of custom and prejudice, a numerous nobility, all the dignified clergy, and an army of 150,000 men, a large portion of whom were foreigners.

'The Bastille, and a variety of subordinate prisons, had always opened their dreadful dungeons at the voice of a resolute prince; a free press, which leaves to a bad minister the choice of his duty or his dishonour, was still unknown; *lettres de cachet*, sold publickly towards the end of the late reign, had been granted during the early

part

part of the present with the most scandalous impunity; and, however amiable, or however timid the present monarch might be, yet, according to the pretended rights of the crown, another Louis XI. might have fabricated new iron cages for his victims, or another Charles IX. perpetrated new massacres on his miserable subjects.

'Nor were the grievances of the people confined wholly to the exercise of the royal functions. The administration of justice was a source of continual censure and perpetual despair. The offices of the judicial magistrates were venal, and they were supposed to reimburse themselves, not only by fees and perquisites, but even by the sale of their decisions: to such a shocking pitch was this carried, that certain females, known by an appropriate name *, were employed to solicit favour from, and even to corrupt, the fountain of justice.

'The bulk of the people was overburdened with taxes, many of which were rather oppressive than productive; offices conferring nobility were publickly bought and sold; while the nobles were exempt from the operation of imposts, and the clergy contributed only what they pleased under the name of a *benevolence*.

'The occupations of the merchant and the farmer were considered as discreditable; the plebeians were excluded from all the high offices in the state, and the profession of arms, alone honourable, was consecrated to the enjoyment of a particular *cast:* to command a regiment, or a man-of-war, it was necessary to be a noble.

'Many of the rigours of the feudal system still disgraced the code and the practice of an enlightened nation. The game-laws were enforced with a barbarous, unfeeling, and unrelenting oppression: the death of a hare or a partridge was sometimes expiated by slavery in the galleys.

'The manerial claims were at once odious and degrading. In several of the provinces the possessor of a fief, under pretence of digging a pond, could rob such as held under, and displeased him, of a garden or an orchard. The right of *free warren* was carried to an alarming extent; the numerous dove-cots not unfrequently aided the artifices of the monopoliser to produce a dearth; the peasant beheld the rabbit, the pheasant, and the pigeon, devouring the fruits of his labours with impunity, while the scanty remnant of his harvest, after being diminished by ecclesiastical exactions, was to be ground at the mill of his lord alone.

'The farmers in the remote districts had reached but a single step beyond the boors of the northern nations. Tied down by the hand of poverty to the soil where they were born, while they maintained the clergy by their tithes, and assisted the nobles by their personal services, they were scarcely able to support their own families; and in years of famine, which frequently occurred, multitudes actually perished from want: nor was this all, for at the period of which we now treat, some of the inhabitants were actually in a state of bondage.

'* *Les Soliciteuses.*'

'The people being thus left entirely destitute of redress or protection; the royal authority paramount and unbounded; the laws venal; the peasantry oppressed; agriculture in a languishing state; commerce considered as degrading; the publick revenues farmed out to greedy financiers; the publick money consumed by a court wallowing in luxury, and every institution at variance with justice, policy, and reason: a change became inevitable in the ordinary course of human events, and, like all sudden alterations in corrupt states, was accompanied with temporary evils and crimes, that made many good men look back on the ancient despotism with a sigh.'

In his accounts of the 14th of July and the 5th of October, 1789, Mr. S. appears to us to be much too studious to cloak and palliate the enormities committed by the populace on those memorable days. The original sin of the first assembly seems to have consisted in the reliance which it placed on popular favour, and the encouragement which it gave to popular excesses; and it was this conduct which, though for a time it asserted its views, ultimately rendered all its efforts abortive, and produced the disastrous termination of the revolution.

The author gives credit to the professions of the French, that they did not seek conquests: but we fear that these were always hollow; and there can be no doubt that such were those made by the Brissotin faction, as proclaimed in a public paper written by Condorcet. This species of abjuration supposes a depth of wisdom, and a degree of self-denial, little allied to the national character; and the occurrences of the day, such as the incorporation of Avignon, of the Comptât de Venaissin, and of Savoy, as well as their subsequent conduct, strongly militate against their claim to the merit of such forbearance.

After the introduction, these volumes are divided into ten books; the first of which embraces the period from the commencement of the war to the King of Prussia's retreat. The effects of the Duke of Brunswick's manifesto are stated with equal force and justice:

'France, already threatened with civil as well as foreign war, and apparently abandoned to the horrours of anarchy, profited on this occasion by the folly and presumption of her enemies. Such a gross outrage to national honour, instead of depressing, aroused the energy of the people. As all were equally deemed objects of vengeance, all became united. As no distinction was made between the friend of the constitution and the zealot of democracy; as no line was drawn, so as to separate the mildest advocate for a limited monarchy, from the most furious partisan of plunder and revolt; every party was alike assailed, and their common safety depended on their conjunction. Men of the most opposite sentiments were now taught to

to unite for the first time. The Brissotins and the Maratists, the Jacobins and the Feuillants, the constitutionalists and the anarchists, were alike desirous to rescue France from a foreign yoke; while some even of the royalists, unable any longer to conceal their resentment at the indignity offered to the honour of their country, were ready to adopt the most vigorous measures, in order to vindicate its independence.'

The observations which close this book are sanctioned by the authority of the best judges of matters of this sort:

'In whatever point of view the invasion of France is to be contemplated, it appears to have been not a little censurable in respect to the manner in which it was conducted, as the operations neither exhibited the degree of celerity necessary to a sudden conquest, nor that happy discrimination which could alone have ensured success to a regular and scientifick attack.

'The moment that Dumouriez had been forced by his own misconduct to abandon the strong position at Grandprey and retire to St Menehould, the combined forces might have marched directly to Chalons, where they would have obtained possession of all his magazines, and avoided the famine and diseases that awaited them in the deserts of Champagne. In that case also, the invading army would have occupied an advanced position between the French troops and the capital, which it might have reached before them; and, had a victory been necessary to sanction such a measure, instead of trifling away so much precious time in festivals at Verdun, the Prussians ought to have given battle before the junction of Kellermann and Beurnonville had rendered the event in some degree problematical.

'But even then, perhaps, it was not too late for veteran soldiers and experienced generals to have overcome an inferior number of new levies headed by untried commanders: this however was not to be achieved by a few indecisive manœuvres and a distant cannonade, such as occurred at Valmy; for these infallibly serve to inure new troops to danger, and teach them at the same time to despise it.

'On the other hand, had a more regular plan been adopted, as was at first intended, Sedan, Montmedy, and Thionville, ought to have been invested according to the rules of war, after which winter-quarters would have been obtained in Lorraine, and, if the confederates did not quarrel in the interval, the campaign might have been concluded in the ensuing spring. But while the original plan was conceived with vigour, the new measures, although rash in their own nature, were at the same time slow, languid, and inefficacious; and both the troops and treasure of the great Frederick were improvidently wasted in an expedition which reflected but little glory on his successor.

'The nominal command of the grand army had undoubtedly been conferred on the greatest captain of his age; his opinions, however, were unceasingly counteracted by the projects of contending politicians, the intrigues of interested favourites, and the jealousies of rival princes. Had the duke of Brunswick been permitted to con-

duct the operations of the campaign without controul, that general perhaps would have effected for the Bourbons what Alberoni, the czar Peter the Great, Charles XII., Louis XIV., and Louis XV., attempted in vain to achieve for the Stuarts; but even in that case we should probably have beheld France dismembered by the victors, and the outrageous principles of an over-weening despotism inculcated and professed by every cabinet in Europe.'

'In this, as in other parts of his work, the author does not seem to entertain a sufficient distrust of Dumouriez's account of his own life; a publication to which the historian must doubtless recur, but which is of little authority, except when corroborated by notoriety of facts, or by concurrent testimony.

The IId book narrates the splendid campaign of Dumouriez in the Netherlands.

Book IIId states the dangers to which the new republic, while as it were in its cradle, was exposed; and it gives an account of the critical period when the Netherlands had been recovered by the allies, and the frontier towns of France had been captured; while the convention was rent by fierce irreconcileable factions, and civil war raged in the bowels of the state, some of the most wealthy and populous departments having hoisted the standard of revolt.

We copy a part of the author's narrative, which describes the extreme danger into which the young republic had been brought, with the extraordinary means taken to extricate it, and records a memorable instance of British bravery:

'While the republick was thus a prey to intestine disorders, the capture of Valenciennes, and the forced retreat of the wreck of the French army from under the protection of Cambray, seemed once more to present a fair opportunity to the combined forces of marching to the capital, and deciding the fate of the empire. Certain it is, that so long as such an imposing mass remained together, nothing could withstand its efforts; and that it was only by its division that it could be overcome. But the allied courts appear at this moment to have been dazzled with their success, and to have entertained separate views of aggrandisement, which but ill accorded with those principles on which they had professed to act. Two of the chief fortresses in the French Netherlands were already in possession of the emperour; and it was now determined by the English cabinet to re-annex part of the maritime Flanders to the crown of Great Britain. Accordingly, while the Austrians undertook the siege of Quesnoy, with a view to increase their acquisitions in that quarter, the duke of York, at the head of the English troops, and a body of Dutch and Hanoverians, advanced and occupied a camp in the neighbourhood of Menin.

'Never was any country reduced to such a desperate situation as France at this critical moment. A multitude of the most courageous

geous friends of liberty were imprisoned, and a large portion of the convention either arrested, put to death, or proscribed. Forty thousand royalists in the west triumphed over the ignorant generals and undisciplined armies exposed to their rage. In the north, the Austrians, after subduing Belgium, menaced the capital; in the south, Lyons and Marseilles were scarcely subdued; and Toulon was known to be already in possession of a British admiral. In every quarter the enemies of the republick were victorious. The king of Prussia, after driving the French from Franckfort and Costhiem, had obtained Mentz. A large army was preparing to force the lines of Weissembourg. The empire had declared war against France. Landau was blockaded; Strasburgh menaced; the territories bordering on the Pyrenées were overrun by the Spaniards; the colonies in the East and West Indies were either already conquered or threatened with immediate subjection by the English, while the French flag was no longer seen in the Channel, the Atlantick, or the Mediterranean.

'But the energy of the jacobins was admirably calculated to contend with, and even to overcome, obstacles that at any other period, and perhaps to any other men, would have appeared insurmountable. The industry, the wealth, and even the lives of near thirty millions of inhabitants were placed by various decrees at their disposal. Recurring to terrour as the most powerful engine, they employed a revolutionary tribunal, a revolutionary army, and stationary as well as ambulatory guillotines, to repress and punish all those who opposed their authority. Bastilles, under a new name, contained the citizens liable to suspicion; and a multitude of spies, informers, and executioners, carried fear into every house and into every bosom. No one was either exempt from dread or from punishment. An obnoxious deputy suffered as a federalist; the noble was accused of emigration; the lawyer perished as a traitor, the banker as a counter-revolutionist, the merchant as a forestaller. Safety was to be found nowhere but in the armies; and immense multitudes repaired thither for protection.

'As all the rich were become objects of suspicion, their treasure was confiscated at pleasure, and employed sometimes in behalf of the commonwealth, but not unfrequently squandered away according to the caprice of interested individuals. Crimes of all kinds were encouraged. Pity and humanity were devoted to infamy, and not unfrequently to the scaffold; it was dangerous to indulge the cry of nature; the father durst not assist his exiled son; the child could not contribute to the support of his imprisoned father with impunity; civick crowns were voted to spies deserving of punishment, and France appeared to have erected altars to ingratitude and injustice, at the very moment she was preparing to repress and annihilate her foes.

'But even amidst the sanguinary excesses of the triumphant party, it is impossible not to admire the energetick measures adopted against the foreign enemy. In consequence of a report from the committee of publick safety, all Frenchmen were declared, by a solemn decree of the convention, to be at the service of their country until its enemies

mies should be chased from the territories of the republick. "The young men shall march to the combat; the married ones shall forge arms and transport the provisions; the women shall fabricate tents and clothes, and attend the military hospitals; the children shall make lint to serve as dressings for the wounds of the patriots; while the old men shall cause themselves to be carried to the publick squares to excite the courage of the warriors, to preach the unity of the republick, and inspire hatred against kings."

'To supply the wants of the immense armies now about to be collected from all quarters, measures of a new and extraordinary kind were adopted. Assignats were not only fabricated and expended in immense quantities, but their value was maintained for some time at a rate nearly equivalent to that of gold; and when this resource began to fail, revolutionary taxes were imposed. The doctrine of requisition was at length recurred to, and all the necessaries of life appertaining to citizens in easy circumstances, were seized upon in the name of the republick, and for the support of its troops, while the great cities were crowded with manufactures of saltpetre, the towns converted into foundries, and the ancient palaces metamorphosed into arsenals to supply the elements of destruction.

'At the very moment that the idea of a nation's rising *in mass* was ridiculed throughout Europe, the convention, on the proposition of the committee of publick safety, had either augmented or created eleven distinct armies, which seemed to form a chain around the frontiers of France. All the unmarried males from eighteen to forty years of age were put in permanent requisition, and a draft of three hundred thousand made at one time. These immense resources enabled them to strengthen and new-model the army of the north, extending from Dunkirk to Maubeuge; that of the Ardennes, reaching from Maubeuge to Longwy; that of the Moselle, from Longwy to Bitche; that of the Rhine, from Bitche to Porentrui; that of the Alps, from the Aisne to the borders of the Var; that of Italy, from the Maritime Alps to the mouth of the Rhone; the army of the Oriental Pyrenées, from the mouth of the Rhone to the Garonne; the army of the Western Pyrenées, from the department of the Upper Pyrenées to the mouth of the Gironde; the army of the coasts of Rochelle, from the mouth of the Gironde to that of the Loire; the army of the coasts of Brest, from the mouth of the Loire to St. Maloes; and, lastly, that of the coasts of Cherbourgh, from St. Maloes to the northern department.

'No sooner did the French learn that the combined forces intended to separate, than they determined once more to resume offensive operations, and overcome that military colossus in its disjointed state which they had been unable to contend with entire. Advantage was taken of the inactivity of the Prussians after the conquest of Mentz, and drafts were accordingly made from the armies of the Rhine and the Moselle, while the new levies were clothed, embodied, and disciplined. A plebeian general, who had ascended through all the various military gradations, from the station of a trooper to the chief command, was assigned to them at the same time for their leader: this was Houchard, already celebrated by his

exploits in Germany; and who, after possessing in succession the command of the forces stationed on the banks of the Rhine and the Moselle, was now placed at the head of the army of the north.

'The French having attacked Lincelles, a post lately taken and occupied by command of the hereditary prince of Orange, major-general Lake, with three battalions, consisting of the first, Coldstream, and third regiment of guards, was sent to the assistance of the Dutch troops, who had unluckily retreated by a different road. But notwithstanding this discouraging circumstance, and the manifest superiority of the enemy, an immediate attack was determined upon. The English were accordingly formed, and advanced under a heavy fire against a redoubt of uncommon size and strength, erected upon a height in front of the village. After firing three or four rounds, they charged with bayonets, stormed the works, drove out the enemy, dispersed them after they had rallied, and took eleven pieces of cannon, and about fifty prisoners *.'

The 17th book relates the reduction of Lyons, the recapture of Toulon, and the turn given to the war by Pichegru and Hoche. In the history of the memorable siege of the latter place, the inauspicious name of Napoleone Bonaparte first occurs:

'Dugommier, a general who had already distinguished himself by his victories over the forces of the king of Sardinia, was now appointed commander in chief; and as the surrender of the great naval arsenal of the south greatly depended on the management of the immense artillery employed against it, great pains were taken to find an engineer every way worthy of the occasion. Such a person was at length discovered in Napoleone Bonaparte, an obscure Corsican, who had been educated at the military academy in France, and served as a lieutenant in the regiment of La Fere. Having fled from the troubles that prevailed in his native island, he now offered his services, and was employed by the deputy Barras, on the recommendation of his countryman Salicetti, and contributed not a little by his military talents to decide both the fate of Toulon and of France.

'The very first operation was decisive of success. Knowing that the possession of Malbousquet, one of the principal outposts of Toulon, would enable him to bombard the town and arsenal, Bonaparte accordingly opened a strong battery of heavy cannon and mortars on the height of Arenes, which annoyed that position exceedingly, by means of an incessant fire of shot and shells.'

It appears from the subsequent part of the narrative, that to this disposition was owing the successful termination of the siege, which so quickly followed.

'* The London Gazette Extraordinary states, "from the concurring testimony of the prisoners, that the enemy had twelve battalions at the post, and must have been upwards of five thousand men."

Book

Book v. details the brilliant successes which attended the efforts of the republicans in the campaign of 1794-5:

'This campaign, with an exception to the ocean and the Mediterranean where it was eminently disastrous, and to La Vendée where success still appeared equivocal, proved highly favourable to France, in every part of Europe. Several pitched battles, and a multitude of skirmishes, had not only restored all the fortresses on the northern frontier, but destroyed near one hundred thousand of her enemies, and subjugated many millions of inhabitants. Holland, with her numerous fleets, her extensive commerce, and her wealthy merchants, readily submitted to her sway; Germany had been forced to yield the two ecclesiastical electorates of Cologne and Treves, the principality of Liege, the duchy of Deux Ponts, the bishopricks of Worms and Spires, and part of the Palatinate; Prussia was unable to resume the duchies of Cleves and Juliers; from Italy had been wrested Nice, Monaco, all Savoy, and part of Piedmont; while Spain had not only lost the provinces of Guipuscuoa and Catalonia, but was in some measure at the mercy of the conquerour.'

The effects of the French revolution with reference to our own country are thus stated:

'At this awful epoch, most of the neighbouring potentates seem to have been alarmed for their own personal safety, and to have held in dread the increasing knowledge of the age. Such was their scrupulous jealousy, that in some countries clubs of all kinds were prohibited; literary societies were abolished; learning, science, and superiour abilities, became objects of suspicion. Even in Britain, the upper ranks of society, partly influenced by the donatives so profusely bestowed in the shape of honours, pensions, and employments, and partly terrified by the supposed atheism and acknowledged crimes of those who for a time had governed France, became jealous of the liberties of their native country. The greedy capitalist trembling for his wealth, the rapacious courtier panting after preferment, the new-made peer indignant at beholding the growing contempt of titles, the ancient nobility mortified to think that talents began to be preferred to blood,—all these, under the seductive appellation of a *strong government*, sighed after something approximating to an absolute monarchy. The distresses of the people too began to be alarming; parochial relief could not extend to all their wants; publick subscriptions were recurred to, on purpose to equalise the price of labour with the price of provisions; and England, whose sturdy peasantry had hitherto been the reproach of other nations, was soon threatened with a degree of degradation approaching to the Helotism of ancient Sparta.

'Nor was this the only mischief, for the *Habeas Corpus* act had been suspended, and the prisons were crowded with men accused of disaffection and treason. Conspiracies more frequent and more strange than those that once actuated the fertile brain of Titus Oates, were supposed to have been hatched, and the meal-tub plot during the reign of Charles II. was surpassed in novelty and extravagance by the pop-gun machinations against George III.

'In

'In Scotland, political opinions were punished by banishment to distant and inhospitable regions; in England, several unsuccessful attempts were made to render them capital: but what was still more terrible, seclusion, as in the time of the Stuarts, began to be practised on those accused of delinquency against the government; and while the general voice yet applauded the destruction of the Bastille in France, a prison, which from an obvious similarity soon obtained that odious name, was reared in the vicinity of the British metropolis, and its police entrusted to a man who, according to report, was worthy of being provost to the palace to Louis XI. A young senator * of considerable promise exposed these malpractices in a manner that made a forcible impression upon the publick; and had he been properly seconded by the opposition, the nuisance would have either been removed or abated.

'But while the ministry, a prey perhaps to the terrours arising from their own unpopularity, as well as from the nature of the contest in which they had engaged, were filling the gaols with the victims of suspicion, it must be allowed that they deserved credit for the energy with which they provided for the internal defence of a kingdom that now began in its turn to be menaced with invasion. Not only was the militia greatly augmented, but numerous volunteer and fencible *corps*, both of infantry and cavalry, were everywhere formed; batteries were erected, and companies of artillery trained along the coasts; while the immense superiority of the navy was everywhere conspicuous, and the narrow seas, the Atlantick and Pacifick oceans, as well as the Mediterranean, beheld the triumph of our fleets.

'Every idea of peace was, however, treated with the most supercilious contempt; and hopes were still entertained and propagated that a nation "not only on the brink but in the very gulph of bankruptcy" would soon be subjugated. "Indemnity for the past and security for the future" began to be the cry; and the matchless eloquence and enormous expenditure of the premier threatened alike to protract the contest. All motions of a pacifick tendency in the course of this session of parliament were accordingly negatived.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VI. *Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth.* By John Playfair, F.R.S. Edin., and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 528. 10s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech; London, Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE inquiries of the Geologist, though extremely curious and fascinating, scarcely afford the expectation of arriving at any satisfactory general conclusions concerning their peculiar objects: but they have been eminently serviceable in mineralogy, and have created a stimulus which has tended to the industrious accumulation of a great number of singular

---

'* Sir F. Burdett.'

and

and interesting facts respecting the natural history of the Earth.—The Geological world has been long divided between the *Vulcanic* and *Neptunian* systems, in which the various phænomena of the mineral kingdom are supposed to be produced by fire or by water: while the insufficiency of both those systems to reconcile many appearances, that have been observed, gave rise to a new theory, in which the agency of both fire and water is employed; and which was suggested some years ago by Dr. Hutton, an intrepid and indefatigable Philosopher, of Edinburgh, who himself laid it before the world in an elaborate and extensive publication. His work was not, however, sufficiently popular and perspicuous, to receive general attention; and therefore, from a wish to present it in a more familiar and intelligible point of view, Mr. Playfair has written the present interesting Treatise, which his long habits of intimacy with Dr. Hutton, united to his well-known learning and abilities, rendered him peculiarly well qualified to undertake.

In arranging his materials, the author has first given the principles of this system, and has afterward subjoined, in the form of notes, such farther illustrations as particular subjects might be thought to demand. The mineral kingdom he considers as divided into two parts, namely, *stratified* and *unstratified* substances; and in following this division, he first treats of the phænomena peculiar to the stratified, next of those peculiar to the unstratified, and, lastly, of such as are common to both. Pursuant to his arrangement, he commences with the first head, which he divides into three branches, viz. the *materials*, *consolidation*, and *position* of the strata.

With regard to the *materials of strata*, it is generally allowed that they have had their origin at the bottom of the sea, from the marks which they bear of having been deposited by water. Dr. Hutton admits this idea, but he also lays it down as a fundamental proposition, 'That in all the strata we discover proofs of the materials having existed as elements of bodies, which must have been destroyed before the formation of those of which these materials now actually make a part.' This proposition he considers as proved from various circumstances. Calcareous strata present appearances, either of being solely composed of corals, shells, or other marine exuvise; or of having originated from the demolition of some antient rocks, the fragments of which seem to have been united in an irregular way. Siliceous strata, particularly pudding-stones and breccias, appear in many cases to be composed of various fragments agglutinated together; and as these are frequently round and polished, he concludes that they must, at some time, have been exposed to attrition. This, however, could only take

take place near the shore, and never in deep water, where there is little motion; and hence it appears to him, that there is sufficient evidence of seas and continents having existed previously to the formation of the present strata. Argillaceous strata likewise occasionally contain impressions of vegetable and animal substances; and pitcoal frequently bears unequivocal marks of its vegetable origin. Where there are no distinct marks of vegetable organization in the latter, Dr. H. supposes it to have originated from the precipitation of oily and fuliginous particles set loose by burning, and from their subsequent deposition at the bottom of the sea, where they at length formed strata with the earthy substances with which they were mingled. Primitive, or rather, as Dr. Hutton would term them, primary stratified rocks, which lie below the secondary now mentioned, do not afford, in his view, an exception to these conclusions; since they also frequently contain marks of animal exuviæ. The *consolidation* of the strata thus deposited at the bottom of the sea, could not, Dr. Hutton imagines, have been effected by water alone; because, 1st, water could not entirely banish the porosity of the mass; 2dly, it must have been able to dissolve all the substances which are afterward deposited, which it cannot do in the case of quartz, feltspar, fluor, and many others; and 3dly, if a solution were produced, some unknown cause must operate in occasioning a disposition to crystallize, without evaporation.

Dr. H. regards consolidation as readily producible by fire, particularly when applied to matter strongly pressed by the sea.

'The tendency of an increased pressure on the bodies to which heat is applied, is to restrain the volatility of those parts which otherwise would make their escape, and to force them to endure a more intense action of heat. At a certain depth under the surface of the sea, the power even of a very intense heat might therefore be unable to drive off the oily or bituminous parts from the inflammable matter there deposited, so that, when the heat was withdrawn, these principles might be found still united to the earthy and carbonic parts, forming a substance very unlike the residuum obtained after combustion under a pressure no greater than the weight of the atmosphere. It is in like manner reasonable to believe, that, on the application of heat to calcareous bodies under great compression, the carbonic gas would be forced to remain; the generation of quicklime would be prevented, and the whole might be softened, or even completely melted; which last effect, though not directly deducible from any experiment yet made, is rendered very probable, from the analogy of certain chemical phenomena.'

An analogy of this kind was suggested by Dr. Black; who found that carbonate of barytes may be fused at a certain considerable heat, but that, if the temperature is farther increased, the carbonic acid gas is driven off, the earth loses its fluidity, and

and appears in a caustic state. 'This escape of the fixed air is exactly what the compression in the subterraneous regions is calculated to prevent, and therefore we are not to wonder if, among the calcareous strata, we find marks of actual fusion having taken place.' On the fusibility of other substances, less doubt, he thinks, can be entertained; because even siliceous earth has been softened, though never entirely melted, by heat.

The following are some of the facts by which the doctrine of fusion is supported.—Fossil wood has been frequently found penetrated by siliceous matter.—The same is observable in chalk-beds, into which it may be supposed that melted flint has been forcibly injected, which on cooling formed distinct nodules.—Siliceous pudding-stone consists of pebbles, united by a flinty cement, which seems to denote that a stream of melted flint had been thrown among a mass of loose gravel.—The firm and close union of the quartzy sand, which occurs in some species of sand-stone, could hardly be produced without incipient fusion.—That the calcareous earths have also been subject to fusion, Dr. Hutton considers as proved by the highly crystallized structure of the finer kinds of marble, and by many breccias being not only adapted to each other's shape, but indented into one another like the sutures of the human cranium.—The fusion of argillaceous strata is supported by the structure of septaria, which are usually of a lenticular or sphæroidal shape, and in which there are veins of calcareous matter terminating before they reach the surface of the stone. The calcareous matter, in this case, he imagines, could not be introduced by filtration, nor in any other way but fusion.

Dr. Hutton is of opinion that bituminous strata could not have been consolidated by means of water, on account of the frequent interspersion of pyrites in their substance, which is destroyed by moisture, and resolved into a vitriolic salt. He explains how these strata can be exposed to heat, without a separation of their bitumen, from the pressure above mentioned; which, though in general able to prevent it from flying off, cannot always do so; and hence coal is sometimes found which burns without flame. When the bitumen has escaped, Dr. H. supposes it to have given rise to the well-known fountains of Naphtha and Petroleum, and to that tinge through the substance of lime-stone which is occasionally observed.

Another argument Dr. Hutton derives in support of his theory of consolidation, from the quantities of rock-salt occasionally found in beds; and from soda or natron being sometimes found which does not effloresce, and which contains less than its usual quantity of water of crystallization.

The *position of the strata* is the next object of consideration. The great elevation of certain strata above the surface of the ocean gives rise to the inquiry whether this change of situation has originated from a depression of the sea, or an actual elevation of the strata themselves.—For many reasons, Dr. H. considers the depression of the sea to be impossible; and he thinks that we may account for the phænomenon much better, by the supposition of a great expanding force, acting from the centre to the circumference, which has been capable of producing all those changes in the position of strata which are now found to exist. The application of such a force is not only proved by the position of strata having been often changed from the horizontal to the vertical, but from the breaks or shifts in the strata themselves, which could scarcely be explained in any other way. If a forcible removal of parts from their original situation be admitted, it is then an object of consideration, by what agent such changes could be effected; and here, says Mr. Playfair,

'We cannot expect to decide with equal evidence, but must be contented to pass from what is certain to what is probable. We may, then, remark, that of the forces in nature to which our experience does in any degree extend, none seems so capable of the effect we would ascribe to it, as the expansive power of heat; a power to which no limits can be set, and one, which on grounds quite independent of the elevation of the strata, has been already concluded to act with great energy in the subterraneous regions. We have, indeed, no other alternative, but either to adopt this explanation, or to ascribe the facts in question to some secret and unknown cause, though we are ignorant of its nature, and have no evidence of its existence.

'We are therefore to suppose, that the power of the same subterraneous heat, which consolidated and mineralized the strata at the bottom of the sea, has since raised them up to the height at which they are now placed, and has given them the various inclinations to the horizon which they are found actually to possess.

'The probability of this hypothesis will be greatly increased, when it is considered, that, besides those now enumerated, there are other indications of movement among the bodies of the mineral kingdom, where effects of heat more characteristic than simple expansion are clearly to be discovered. Thus, on examining the marks of disorder and movement which are found among the strata, it cannot fail to be observed, that notwithstanding the fracture and dislocation, of which they afford so many examples, there are few empty spaces to be met with among them, as far as our observation extends. The breaches and separations are numerous, and distinct; but they are, for the most part, completely filled up with minerals of a kind quite different from the rock on each side of them, and remarkable for containing no vestiges of stratification.'

Having completed the consideration of the phænomena peculiar to stratified bodies, the author goes on to the examination of those which belong to the *unstratified*. His observations on this division of his subject are applied to *Metallic Veins*, *Whinstone*, and *Granite*; all of which, he decidedly concludes with Dr. Hutton, bear unequivocal marks of having been exposed to the action of heat.

'That metallic veins,' says Mr. P., 'are of a formation subsequent to the hardening and consolidation of the strata which they traverse, is too obvious to require any proof; and it is no less clear, from the crystallized and sparry structure of the substances contained in them, that these substances must have concreted from a fluid state. Now, that this fluidity was simple, like that of fusion by heat, and not compound, like that of solution in a menstruum, is inferred from many phenomena. It is inferred from the acknowledged insolubility of the substances that fill the veins, in any one menstruum whatsoever; from the total disappearance of the solvent, if there was any; from the complete filling up of the vein by the substances which that solvent had deposited; from the entire absence of all the appearances of horizontal or gradual deposition; and lastly, from the existence of close cavities, lined with crystals, and admitting no egress to any thing but heat.

'To the same effect may be mentioned those groups of crystals composed of substances the most different, that are united in the same specimen, all intersecting and mutually impressing one another. These admit of being explained, on the supposition that they were originally in fusion, and became solid by the loss of heat; a cause that acted on them all alike, and alike impelled them to crystallize: But the appearances of simultaneous crystallization seem incompatible with the nature of deposition from a solvent, where, with respect to different substances, the effects must take place slowly, and in succession.

'The metals contained in the veins which we are now treating of, appear very commonly in the form of an ore, mineralized by sulphur. Their union with this latter substance can be produced, as we know, by heat, but hardly by the way of solution in a menstruum, and certainly not at all, if that menstruum is nothing else than water. The metals, therefore, when mineralized by sulphur, give no countenance to the hypothesis of aqueous solution; and still less do they give any when they are found native, as it is called, that is, malleable, pure and uncombined with any other substance. The great masses of native iron found in Siberia and South America are well known; and nothing certainly can less resemble the products of a chemical precipitation. Gold, however, the most perfect of the metals, is found native most frequently; the others more rarely, in proportion nearly to the facility of their combination with sulphur. Of all such specimens it may be safely affirmed, that if they have ever been fluid, or even soft, they must have been so by the action of heat; for, to suppose that a metal has been precipitated, pure and uncombined from any menstruum, is to trespass against all analogy, and to maintain a physical impossibility. But it is certain, that many of the native metals have once been in a

state

state of softness, because they bear on them impressions which they could not have received but when they were soft. Thus, gold is often impressed by quartz and other stones, which still adhere to it, or are involved in it. Specimens of quartz, containing gold and silver shooting through them, with the most beautiful and varied ramifications, are every where to be met with in the cabinets of the curious; and contain, in their structure, the clearest proof, that the metal and the quartz have been both soft, and have crystallized together. By the compactness, also, of the body which they form, they show, that when they acquired solidity, it was by the concretion of the whole mass, and not by such partial concretion as takes place when a solvent is separated from substances which it held in solution.'

The same position is also supported by the existence of some other metals in a native state, particularly manganeze (which then possesses the characters to which it has been reduced in furnaces); by the shifting of veins; and by the fragments of surrounding rock being occasionally found immersed in the veins, and encompassed on all sides by crystallized substances.

Whinstone is the next of the unstratified bodies brought forwards in aid of the Huttonian Theory. All these stones, it is observed, discover the rudiments of crystallization; and they bear a very great analogy to lavas, from which they are in general to be distinguished only by containing calcareous spar and zeolite. This analogy extends even to the columnar form which lavas occasionally assume, and which, as well as that of basaltic pillars, differs, in the closeness and regularity of the columns, from any thing which the drying of starch, clay, or other substances of that kind which have been suspended in water, can discover.

Whinstone is also frequently penetrated by pyrites, and sometimes contains pieces of sandstone in the middle of its substance, as if they had once floated in fluid whin. Beds of stone, when in contact with veins of whin, seem to have acquired additional induration: but coal, on the other hand, when similarly circumstanced, is nearly reduced to the condition of coke or charcoal. Whinstone is likewise occasionally seen in tabular masses, between beds of stratified rock, where it is not uncommon to find it elevated, and bent with the concavity upwards, as if it had been influenced, when in a softened state, by a force acting from below. In addition to those circumstances which favour the idea of exposure to fire, the author mentions the state of Agates and Chalcedonies, which are often found in matrices of whin, and which posses a crystallized structure, with the crystals concentric, evidently proceeding from circumference to centre, and leaving a vacuity in the middle. Sir James Hall's experiments are also quoted in this

place, in order to shew that, by slow cooling, fluid whinstone, which would otherwise be vitreous, may be made to assume an opake appearance scarcely to be distinguished from whinstone, or lava.

Granite, the last of the unstratified substances mentioned, 'wherever it is found, is inferior to every other rock; and as it also composes many of the greatest mountains, it has the peculiarity of being elevated the highest into the atmosphere, and sunk the deepest under the surface, of all the mineral substances with which we are acquainted.' It is regarded by Dr. Hutton 'as a stone of more recent formation than the strata incumbent on it; as a substance which has been melted by heat, and which, when forced up from the mineral regions, has elevated the strata at the same time.'—The firm consolidation of this substance, and the crystallization of the parts of which it is composed, are regarded as proofs of its having been once in a state of fluidity; as also the appearance of the quartz in Portsoy granite, which is impressed by the rhomboidal crystals of the feltspar. It is supposed that this circumstance could not have taken place unless the former were once fluid; and that this fluidity could not have been the effect of solution in a menstruum, because in this case each crystal would have assumed its own proper shape, without being able to produce any impression on such as were contiguous to it.

From all the circumstances which have been stated respecting the Huttonian Theory, it is evident that there are two general conclusions which it embraces; the one concerning the actual change to which the different parts of the earth have been subjected, and the other relating to the means by which those changes have been effected. On the first head, the deductions are, 'that the fluidity which preceded the consolidation of mineral substances was simple, that is, it did not arise from the combination of those substances with any solvent;' and 'that, after consolidation, these bodies have been raised up by an expansive force acting from below, and have by this means been brought into their present situation.'—The second is still admitted to be a matter of theory, or, to speak more properly, of hypothesis; and it consists in the idea that fire, or rather heat, was the cause of the fluidity of those mineral bodies, and of their subsequent elevation. The existence of a prodigious heat in the bowels of the earth, necessary for the fusion of the various substances already mentioned, is considered as being rendered extremely probable by many phænomena which present themselves, more particularly those of volcanoes, hot springs, and earthquakes. The heat, however, of which the existence is thus assumed, is regarded as 'of a nature so far different from ordinary fire, that it may require no circulation

of air, and no supply of combustible materials to support it. It is not accompanied with inflammation or combustion, the great pressure preventing any separation of parts in the substances on which it acts, and the absence of that elastic fluid without which heat seems to have no power to decompose bodies, even the most combustible, contributing to the unalterable nature of all the substances in the mineral regions. There, of consequence, the only effects of heat are fusion and expansion; and that which forms the nucleus of the globe may therefore be a fluid mass, melted, but unchanged by the action of heat.'

The third and last section of this work treats of the phænomena *common to stratified and unstratified bodies;* and here it is attempted to trace some of those series of changes which fossil bodies are destined to undergo. From all his observations on this subject, Dr. Hutton concludes 'that, in the œconomy of the world, we see no marks either of a beginning or an end;' 'that the Author of nature has not given laws to the universe which, like the institutions of men, carry in themselves the elements of their own destruction;' and that, 'though he may put an end, as he gave a beginning, to the present system; at some determinate period, it may be safely concluded that this great catastrophe will not be brought about by any of the laws now existing, and that it is not indicated by any thing which we perceive.'

The decomposition of all mineral substances is considered as continual, and as having been produced by a great number of agents, both chemical and mechanical. As soon as the elevation of strata has been effected, the action of air, moisture, heat, and perhaps light, takes place; which diminishes the force of union in parts, and, as is particularly exemplified in the oxydation of metals, disposes them to resolution into earth. The action of water, either by its slightly solvent powers or by its mechanical effects, more especially on congelation, has a powerful tendency to destroy hard bodies into which it has obtained entrance. Parts which are loosened are carried down by rains; and, in their descent, rub and grind against the superficies of other bodies; thus, as it were, 'turning the forces of the mineral kingdom against themselves.'—The constant series of changes which occur, are instanced from various phænomena observed in many parts of the creation, particularly in mountains, rivers, and the sea; and the inference from all of them is, that the present continents are all going to decay, and their materials descending into the ocean, where strata are again to be formed, which will in their turn be consolidated and elevated, and will afterward exhibit a series of changes similar to the past.

We have thus endeavoured to give a general idea of the celebrated Theory of Dr. Hutton, from the interesting account of it furnished by Mr. Playfair in the present publication. The ample notes, which occupy the greater part of the volume, will be found to contain many curious facts, and ingenious illustrations, which could with less propriety have been introduced into the body of the work.

ART. VII. *A Comparative View of the Huttonian and Neptunian Systems of Geology*; in Answer to the Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth, by Professor Playfair. 8vo. pp. 256. 5s. Boards. Edinburgh, Ross and Co.; London, Longman and Rees. 1802.

THIS author is a Neptunist, and is decidedly of opinion that the arguments of Dr. Hutton and his illustrator are either fallacious, or may be employed with equal force to establish an opposite conclusion. He admits the general proposition that the strata of the earth are liable to waste, and that the materials are carried forwards to the sea: but he does not with Dr. Hutton consider this 'as making a part of a series of changes, or a step in the succession of worlds; or that on this planet a habitable world has existed prior to the present, and from the waste of which this has originated.'—He does not allow the existence of marine exuviæ in primary strata, whence an argument is obtained to prove this proposition; and he contends that such are only to be seen in the secondary strata, or in what Werner calls rocks of transition, which are supposed to have been created subsequently to the primary, but previously to the secondary rocks. He deems it also impossible to admit this reasoning on another account, viz. because it is found, from historical record, that many mountains, islands, rocks, and harbours, are precisely in the same state at present as they were two or three thousand years ago; which is allowing an extreme slowness of disintegration, and consequently a duration to the world infinitely beyond our conception.

From what is known concerning the laws of calorics, the author cannot comprehend how such a heat, as is assumed, can exist without something to support it; nor can he allow that it can be accumulated or confined, and not obey its characteristic tendency to exist in a state of equilibrium, by passing off to any body which may approach it. The argument in favour of the subterraneous heat, which is deduced from the phænomena of volcanoes, cannot, he thinks, be admitted; because, 1st, This heat is much inferior to that which would melt quartz; 2d, The matter ejected seems to be different from that

of

of unstratified rocks; and, 3d, Their extinction shews that they arise from matter locally accumulated.

The analogical reasoning, with regard to the fusion of carbonate of barytes, is regarded by this writer as inadmissible in its application to lime; and he even suspects that the experiment was made with impure barytes: since, when this substance is obtained by decomposing the nitrate of barytes, according to the process of Vauquelin, it was found to be easily fusible.

In opposition to the supposed effects of heat in the elevation of the strata, he thinks that the same reasoning will partly apply; but in addition to it, he adduces the want of a principle by which its operation can be regulated, and which will prevent it from being the cause of havoc and disorder, by acting at an improper time.

The principles of the Neptunians, he considers as much better adapted to answer the phænomena, and as much more probable in themselves, than those of Dr. Hutton. This theory supposes that the different fossils have been formed, and the strata arranged, by deposition from water.—The objection brought forwards against this system, from the insolubility in water of the matter of which many strata consist, is attempted to be answered by assuming the existence of 'certain modifying circumstances', which, however satisfactory to the author, may probably be deemed as gratuitous by the advocates for a different opinion.

In the Neptunian Theory, the numerous variations in the position of strata are supposed to originate from the irregularity of the crystalline deposit: but the author also admits, with the Huttonians, 'that no cause can be assigned for these effects, more probable perhaps than that of an expansion produced from an accumulation of heat in the interior parts of the globe, the power of which has probably been spent in their production.'

The different alternations of strata, in this author's opinion, are likewise much better explained on the supposition of a crystalline deposit alone, than on the idea of the consolidation by fire of matters which have simply subsided in a loose or divided state; and he makes the same conclusions with regard to whinstone, granite, and many other bodies which have been adduced as proofs of the Huttonian theory.—In the latter part of his work, he farther endeavours to demonstrate the truth of the Neptunian and the fallacy of the Huttonian system, by the particular examination of the arguments derived from the appearance of individual fossils.

ART. VIII. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, Vol. V. Part II. 4to. 7s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

As this respectable Society pursues the plan lately adopted, of publishing their labours in small portions, we have now to attend to the 2d part of a volume, of which the commencement was announced to our readers in M. R. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 151.—It opens with a paper on

HISTORY.

Remarks on a mixed Species of Evidence in Matters of History: with an Examination of a new Historical Hypothesis, in the Mémoires pour la Vie de Petrarque, by the Abbé de Sade. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, Esq. F.R.S. Edin. Judge-Advocate of North Britain.—The outline of this Examination was given by the author in a small pamphlet, intitled an *Essay on the Life and Character of Petrarch*, published in 1785, and noticed in M. R. vol. lxxiv. p. 282: but a reconsideration of the subject has enabled Mr. Tytler to exhibit his refutation of the hypothesis of the Abbé de Sade, respecting Petrarch and Laura, in a more ample form, and to place the fallacy of the Abbé's reasoning in the strongest light. The inquiry is prefaced by some remarks on that complex species of evidence, which often presents itself in matters of historical research; and by certain rules, which, as being applicable not only to the case here discussed, but to all investigations of a similar kind, merit general attention:

'I. Where a doubtful fact is to be ascertained, by bringing together, comparing and weighing the sense of various passages of an author's writings, the construction put on *ambiguous* expressions ought to be such as is consonant with the sense of those passages or expressions, which, on the same subject, are *plain* and *unambiguous*.

'II. Where a person's *character* and *manner of thinking, feeling*, or *acting*, are clear, from the general tenor of his life and writings, no interpretation ought to be given to doubtful passages of those writings, which contradicts, or is inconsistent with, such *character, sentiments*, and *conduct*.

'III. Where many passages concur to establish the belief of the disputed fact, a single passage, though apparently contradictory to that supposition, must not be allowed weight, if it is possible to give it an explanation consistent with that opinion which is better supported.

'IV. In such a case, where many passages concur to establish the belief of a certain fact, and there appear one or two passages in apparent contradiction to that belief, there is room to suspect either an *error of transcription or typography*; or, if such supposition is excluded, *interpolation or fabrication*.

'V. In

'V. In the supposition of interpolation or fabrication, there must of necessity be included a cogent and adequate *motive*; and therefore, where such motive is utterly wanting, the supposition is not to be indulged.

'VI. Where this motive is apparent, the presumption of *falsehood* is in proportion to the strength of the motive, the facility of executing the deception, and the weight of the opposing evidence.

'VII. Where a passage is suspected of interpolation or fabrication, it is most material to attend to the sense of the *context*, or what immediately precedes and follows the passage in dispute; as its *consonancy* or *dissonancy* is strong matter of corroboration.'

Having premised these rules of evidence, which afford a just criterion for the decision of all questions of historical controversy, especially where the evidence is mixed and presumptive, Mr. Tytler proceeds to develop the object of the Abbé de Sade in composing his *Mémoires pour la Vie de Petrarque*, to analyze the credibility of the evidence on which he rests his hypothesis, and to try the strength of those arguments by which he endeavours to support it.

The position of the Abbé is that

'Laura was a married woman, the mother of a numerous family; that Petrarch, with all his professions of a pure and honourable flame, had no other end in his unexampled assiduity of pursuit, than what every libertine proposes to himself in the possession of a mistress; and that the lovely Laura, though never actually unfaithful to her husband's bed, was sensible to the passion of her *Cicisbeo*, highly gratified by his pursuit, and, while she suffered on his account much restraint and severity from a jealous husband, continued to give him every mark of regard which, without a direct breach of her matrimonial vow, she could bestow upon him.'

In proof of this hypothesis, which would sully the fame of Petrarch and Laura, the Abbé adduces the note supposed to have been written by Petrarch in the first page of the manuscript copy of Virgil, said to have been the property of Petrarch, and which belonged to the Ambrosian Library at Milan; and the casket, medal, and parchment inscription, found, as pretended, on opening a grave in the church of the Cordeliers at Avignon. On this evidence, it is alleged that Laura was born and died at Avignon, and that she was the mother of a numerous family, having been the same person with Laura de Noves, who was married to Hugh de Sade, from whom the author of the *Mémoires* is lineally descended. There is nothing, however, in the works of Petrarch, which countenances this suggestion; while there are numberless passages which assert unequivocally that she 'was neither born, nor died, nor was buried at Avignon; but that she was born in a small village or country residence in the neighbourhood of Vaucluse, where she

she passed her life in humble retirement; that she died there and was buried in the same place.' By these numerous testimonies deduced from Petrarch's authentic writings, a suspicion of forgery will be affixed on the note in the Ambrosian Virgil, and some trick relative to the contents of Laura's supposed tomb may be apprehended:

'It is impossible (says Mr. T.) to suppose, that numberless passages, interspersed through the works of Petrarch, indicating the place of Laura's birth and death, all naturally connected with the subject treated of, though some furnishing their evidence not in positive terms, but only by inference, should every one of them be fabricated; and that the forger should have been able to insert all these fabricated passages in every one of the manuscripts of the author's works which are to be found in Europe. Nor even, should we allow this strange undertaking to have been practicable, is it possible to figure a motive capable of inducing to the attempt? For, what interest had any man to shew, that the Laura of Petrarch was born and died in an obscure residence in the country, while nothing more was proved to ascertain her origin or connections?'

In taking leave, Mr. T. sums up the evidence on which he maintains that Laura was unmarried, and that Petrarch's passion for her was honourable and unsullied:

'Petrarch has composed 318 sonnets, 49 *canzoni* or songs, and 6 *trionfi*; a large volume of poetry, entirely on the subject of his passion for Laura; not to mention a variety of passages in his prose works, where that favourite topic is occasionally treated, and even discussed at very great length. In the whole of those works, there is not to be found a *single passage*, which intimates that Laura was a married woman. Is it to be conceived that the poet, who has exhausted language itself in saying every thing possible of his mistress; who mentions not only her looks, her dress, her gestures, her conversations, but her companions, her favourite walks and her domestic occupations, would have omitted such capital facts, as her being married, and the mother of many children; married too, as the author of the *Mémoires* asserts, to a man who was jealous of her, and who used her with harshness and unkindness on Petrarch's account?'—

'Would this jealous husband have not only patiently witnessed the mutual expressions of this ardent passion for the space of twenty-one years, that his wife was alive; but have complaisantly permitted her gallant, or a friend under his character, to embalm the memory of his mistress by a rapturous love-elegy, to be inclosed in her coffin; the last insult which the honour of a husband could sustain?'—

'*Lastly*, As the love of Petrarch for Laura was an honourable and virtuous passion, so the works of the poet afford sufficient evidence, that he ardently desired to be united to Laura in marriage, and was even in the near prospect of that happiness.'

We have thus made several extracts from this examination, but, to those who may interest themselves in the subject, we recommend a perusal of the whole.

ANATOMY and CHEMISTRY.

Description of an Extra-uterine Fœtus. *By* Mr. Thomas Blizzard, F.R.S. Edin.—The female, in whom this extra-uterine conception took place, had a miscarriage only five weeks before her decease. On the morning of the day in which she died, after having gone through considerable fatigue in her domestic occupations, she was seized with a violent pain in the lower part of the abdomen, which continued till her death; she gradually became weaker; her abdomen became more and more swollen; and about nine in the evening she expired. On opening the abdomen, a considerable quantity of blood was seen proceeding from the pelvis, which, on examination, was found to issue from a rupture, of the bigness of a small quill, which was apparent in an enlargement that had taken place in the middle of the fallopian tube on the left side. This enlargement was about the size of a pigeon's egg, and, on laying it open, it appeared full of a firm coagulum, within which were two membranes, which seemed to the author to be the chorion and amnion. There was no appearance of fœtus, so short a time having elapsed since the last abortion. The uterus, as in ordinary gestation, was increased in size, and much thickened; its cervix was shut up with a jelly, and its cavity lined with a glutinous effusion, such as might be considered as a *membrana decidua* in its early state of formation. The fallopian tube was nearly of its natural size, except at the place of the enlargement above-mentioned. It was pervious at both extremities. The ovaria were 'much vesiculated,' particularly the left, in which there was a *corpus luteum* of considerable size.

Chemical Analysis of an uncommon Species of Zeolite. *By* Robert Kennedy, M.D. F.R.S. F.A.S., Edinb.—The zeolite, which was subjected to analysis by Dr. Kennedy, was found some time ago in the basaltic rock on which the Castle of Edinburgh is built, inclosed within a mass of prehnite. It resembles 'some of the varieties of tremolite mentioned by Saussure, in the property of giving a phosphoric light by friction. Its specific gravity also is somewhat greater than that of the ordinary kinds of zeolite, as stated by mineralogists. Excepting in these particulars, however, it has the principal characters of a zeolite; for example, in its internal composition, in having been found in a whin rock adhering to prehnite, and in producing a jelly with acids.'

One

One hundred parts of this zeolite were found to contain as follow:

Silex	51.5
Lime	32.
Argil	.5
Oxyd of iron	.5
Soda, about	8.5
Carbonic acid and other volatile matter	5.
	98.

with some traces of magnesia and muriatic acid.

Mathematics, Philosophy, &c.

Meteorological Abstract for the Years 1797, 1798, *and* 1799. Communicated by John Playfair, F.R.S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.—In this abstract, the plan formerly suggested to the Society is enlarged. In the tables, the month is divided into three parts, and the state of the barometer and thermometer is given for each of the divisions. At the end of each table, Mr. Playfair has added some interesting remarks.

A New and Universal Solution of Kepler's Problem. By James Ivory, Esq.—The nature of this problem is well known to mathematicians; and for its solution, many methods have been proposed, chiefly indirect, but which are most commodious for practice, even now, when the improvements in analysis afford a direct solution. Some of the indirect solutions have been founded on no sure grounds; for instance, those of Seth Ward, Boulliald, and Mercator; who assumed, as a condition, the elliptical form of the orbit, but not the equable description of areas: they invented, therefore, an hypothesis, and ascertained its proximity to truth by comparing the results from it with observations.

From the time of the great Newton, solutions on more just principles have been given; and since, from the advanced state of the analytic art, we can obtain a direct solution, we have the means (independently of observations) of ascertaining the accuracy of the indirect solutions. We shall just state the equations that occur in the direct solution.

If r be the line drawn from the focus of the ellipse to the body's place, e the excentricity, and 1 the semi-axis major, then the fluxion of the time $= \mp \frac{rr'}{2} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{e^2-(1-r)^2}}$: which, be-

ing

ing integrated, gives, time $= \frac{1}{k}$ arc, (cosine $\frac{r-1}{e}$) $+ \frac{e}{2}\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{r-1}{e}\right)^2}$ or, putting θ for the arc, time $= \frac{1}{k}(\theta + e.\ \text{sin.}\ \theta)$ and if m be put for the arc of the mean anomaly, since time $= m \times \frac{1}{k}$, we have $m = \theta + e\ \text{sin.}\ \theta$: the arc θ is called the arc of the excentric anomaly, and may be deduced in terms of m by a theorem of La Grange (demonstrated by Arbogast, page 252.).

From that theorem, $\theta = m + e\ \text{sin.}\ m + \frac{e^2}{1.2.2}.\ 2\ \text{sin.}\ 2m + \frac{e^3}{1.2.3.2^2}\left\{3^2\ \text{sin.}\ 3m - 3\ \text{sin.}\ m\right\} + \&c.$

Again; if $\varphi - \gamma$ be the true anomaly, $\text{tang.}\frac{\theta}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{1+e}{1-e}}\,\text{tang.}\frac{\varphi-\gamma}{2}$

whence, putting $c = \frac{e}{1+\sqrt{1-e^2}}$, there results

$$\varphi - \gamma = \theta + 2c.\ \text{sin.}\ \theta + \frac{2c^2}{2}\text{sin.}\ 2\theta + \frac{2c^3}{3}\ \text{sin.}\ 3\theta + \&c.$$

and thence, combining it with the preceding theorem,

$$\varphi - \gamma = m + \left\{2c - \frac{e^3}{4} + \frac{5e^5}{9^6}\right\}\ \text{sin.}\ m + \&c.$$

This is the plan of the demonstration given by that great mathematician, La Place.

Mr. Ivory's method is nearly as follows:

In the equation $m = \theta + e\ \text{sin.}\ \theta$, put $m = 2\mu$, $\theta = 2\tau$, then $2\mu = 2\tau + e\ \text{sin.}\ 2\tau = 2\tau + 2e.\ \text{sin.}\ \tau.\ \text{cos.}\ \tau$: whence $\mu - \tau = e.\ \text{sin.}\ \tau.\ \text{cos.}\ \tau$: let $e = \frac{e'(\mu-\tau)}{\text{sin.}(\mu-\tau)}$ (1) $\therefore$ sin. $(\mu-\tau) = e'.\ \text{sin.}\ \tau.\ \text{cos.}\ \tau$.

Hence, if e' were known, τ might be determined: but e' depends on the value of τ in the equation $e = \frac{e'(\mu-\tau)}{\text{sin.}(\mu-\tau)}$; assume $e = e'$ $\therefore$ τ is known $= \tau'$, suppose: substitute τ' in the equation (1) and deduce the value of e (e') or let $e'' = \frac{e.\ \text{sin.}\ (\mu-\tau')}{\mu-\tau'}$; again substitute this value of e'' in the equation sin. $(\mu-\tau) = e''$ sin. τ'. cos. τ', and deduce a new value of τ', τ', suppose; and, similarly proceeding, deduce successive values of e and τ, viz.

e'', e''', &c. τ''', τ'''', &c.

After having shewn how any number of arcs, τ''', τ'''', &c. may be procured, Mr. Ivory proceeds to demonstrate that the arcs

arcs τ, τ', τ'', &c. are alternately greater and less than half the arc of excentric anomaly; and farther, that the terms in the series less than the arc continually increase, while the terms in the series greater than the arc continually decrease: whence, as he observes, 'it is manifest, that by computing more and more terms of the series, we shall have the value of the arc of excentric anomaly within narrower and narrower limits. The arcs τ, τ', &c. form a series of approximations, converging to the true length of half the arc of excentric anomaly, and erring alternately in defect and excess.'

Practical commodiousness, however, requires that the series of arcs τ, τ', &c. should converge rapidly to the value of the arc sought; and Mr. Ivory shews that the series of arcs obtained by his method converges to the true length of half the arc of excentric anomaly with uncommon rapidity.

The several parts of Mr. Ivory's method are explicitly stated in this memoir. By no means unwilling to pay a tribute to the author's ingenuity and mathematical skill, we yet hesitate to pronounce his method superior to all preceding methods, in respect to practical commodiousness. His solution, also, is not the only complete one that has appeared. Will not Mr. Ivory admit that Machin's solution is complete, and independent of the excentricity? In deriving the place of a body moving in an excentric ellipse from the place of a body moving in a parabola, Mr. I. has been anticipated; and for a proof of this assertion, we refer the ingenious author to La Place, *Mecanique céleste*, part 1. book 2. art. 23. and to Simpson's works.

A New Method of expressing the Co-efficients of the Developement of the Algebraic Formula $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^n$, *by Means of the Perimeters of two Ellipses, when* n *denotes the Half of any odd Number: together with an Appendix, containing the Investigation of a Formula for the Rectification of any Arch of an Ellipse.* By Mr. William Wallace, Assistant Teacher of the Mathematics in the Academy of Perth.—In computing the planetary disturbances, it becomes necessary to evolve the form $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^n_x$ into a series; as, $A+B\cos.\varphi+C\cos.2\varphi+$ &c.: this was first done, we believe, by Euler; and after him, the computation of the co-efficients, *A*, *B*, *C*, &c. exercised the talents of D'Alembert, Clairaut, and La Grange: but the honour of the most elegant solution belongs to a mathematician of these isles, Mr. Ivory, and was given by him in the fourth volume of the Edinburgh Transactions.

In classing the several kinds of differential expressions, those which depend on the form $x^n(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, or on the rectification of a circle, (as the phrase is,) are put first; then succeed

ceed those expressions which can be reduced to the form $x \cdot \frac{(1-e^2x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{(1-x^2)^{\frac{1}{4}}}$, or which depend on the rectification of the ellipse. Since the publication of Le Gendre's paper, (Paris Memoirs, 1786,) the latter problem, the rectification of the ellipse, can in all cases be solved, and commodiously. Hence, although we have not tables exhibiting the lengths of elliptic arcs, yet the *analytical* difficulty is supposed to be at an end, when a problem is reduced to depend on the rectification of an ellipse.

In the problem of the evolution of $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{n}{2}}$, it is not necessary to find more than the first two co-efficients A and B; for it has been shewn by Clairaut, D'Alembert, &c. that any co-efficient may be determined, when the two preceding co-efficients are known; and moreover, that, if the co-efficients A and B are known when the index is $\frac{n}{2}$ (n an odd number), the co-efficients A', B', or A, B, may be determined when the index is $\frac{n}{2}\pm 1$. M. La Grange and Mr. Ivory shewed how to find the two first co-efficients in the developement of $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos\varphi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

Mr. Wallace takes $n=-3$, and therefore $A=\frac{1}{\pi}\times$ $\int\frac{\varphi}{(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ and $B=\frac{1}{\pi}\int\frac{2\varphi\cos.\varphi}{(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ (π being the semiperiphery of a circle), and the chief object of Mr. W.'s analysis is to shew that the above mentioned integrals depend on the rectification of the ellipse; a problem which, as he justly observes, may by means of infinite series be resolved in any case that can possibly occur.

Having reduced the integrals, on which A and B in the series $A+B.\cos.\varphi+C.\cos.2\varphi+$ &c. depend, to the rectification of an ellipse, Mr. W. undertakes to shew how the lengths of elliptic arches may commodiously and expeditiously be found; and for this purpose he introduces the formulas, by which the relation subsisting between three ellipses, whose excentricities vary according to a certain law, is exhibited. These formulas were given by Le Gendre in the Paris Memoirs for 1786, and subsequently by La Croix in his treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. There is no simple series from which, in all cases of excentricity, the length of the elliptic arc can be calculated: but, if the ellipse be very nearly circular, then its length may be found by the common series, viz.

$$\pi\left\{1-\frac{e^2}{2.2}-\frac{1.1.1.3.e^4}{2.2.4.4}-\text{&c.}\right\}$$: or by Euler's, viz. $\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}$

$\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\left\{1-\frac{1.1}{2.4}c^2-\frac{1.1.3.5}{2.4.6.8}c^4-\frac{1.3}{2.4}-\text{&c.}\right\}$: or by Mr. Ivory's, given in the Edinburgh Transactions, Vol. 4 : but, if the ellipse be much flattened, then the most convenient series is that of Le Gendre, ascending by the powers of the conjugate axis. If, however, the excentricity be neither very great nor very small, then none of the above-mentioned series are commodious for practice, on account of their slow convergency; and other methods must be adopted. The formulas of Le Gendre, by which the length of one ellipse may be determined from the lengths of two others of less or greater excentricity, are very convenient; and for the same end the ingenious author of the present memoir has given what he calls a series, the demonstration of which he adds in an appendix. The construction of the series is as follows:

'I shall now collect into one point of view the result of the preceding analysis, in the form of a practical rule for finding the length of any arch of an ellipse.

'Let $1 =$ the semi-transverse axis, $e =$ the excentricity, $z =$ any arch of the ellipse, reckoned from the extremity of the conjugate axis.

'$\phi =$ an arch of the circumscribing circle, intercepted between the conjugate axis and an ordinate to the transverse.

'Compute the quantities e', e'', e''', &c. $\sin 2\phi'$, $\sin 4\phi''$, $\sin 8\phi'''$, &c. from these two series of equations,

$$e'=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-e^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e^2}}, \qquad \sin 2\phi'=\frac{\sin 2\phi}{(1+e')\sqrt{1-e^2\sin^2\phi}},$$

$$e''=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-e'^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e'^2}}, \qquad \sin 4\phi''=\frac{\sin 4\phi'}{(1+e'')\sqrt{1-e'^2\sin^2 2\phi'}},$$

$$e'''=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-e''^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e''^2}}, \qquad \sin 8\phi'''=\frac{\sin 8\phi''}{(1+e''')\sqrt{1-e''^2\sin^2 4\phi''}},$$

$$e^{IV}=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-e'''^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e'''^2}}, \qquad \sin 16\phi^{IV}=\frac{\sin 16\phi'''}{(1+e^{IV})\sqrt{1-e'''^2\sin^2 8\phi'''}},$$

&c. &c.

'The quantities e', e'', e''', &c. approach very fast to 0, and the arches ϕ', ϕ'', ϕ''', &c. approach to a certain limit, which let us denote by θ.

'Compute also these three quantities,

$$P=(1+e')(1+e'')(1+e''')\text{ &c.}$$

$$Q=\frac{e}{2}+\frac{ee'}{2.2}+\frac{ee'e''}{2.2\,2.}+\frac{ee'e''e'''}{2.2.2.2}+\text{ &c.}$$

$$R=\frac{e(1+e')}{2.2}\sin 2\phi'+\frac{ee'(1+e')(1+e'')}{2.2.2.2}\sin 4\phi''+$$

$$\frac{ee'e''(1+e')(1+e'')(1+e''')}{4.2.2.2.2.4}\sin 8\phi'''+\text{ &c.}$$

'The

'The elliptic arch $z = \theta P(1 - eQ) + eR$.

'When φ becomes a quadrant, the sines of $2\varphi'$, $4\varphi''$, $8\varphi'''$, &c. are evidently each 0, so that, putting $\pi = 3.14159$, &c. we have in this case, $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, and putting E to denote the whole elliptic quadrant, we have

$$E = \frac{\pi}{2} P(1 - eQ).$$

'Now it is worthy of remark, that the expression $P(1 - eQ)$ is common to the indefinite arch z and the whole quadrant E; hence it follows that the indefinite arch may be also expressed thus,

$$z = \frac{2\theta}{\pi} E + eR.'$$

This paper well deserves the attention of mathematicians, since Mr. W. has drawn it up with perspicuity, and conducted the analytical operations with great neatness and expedition. His merit, however, chiefly consists in having improved on the labours of others; for we do not regard him as original either in the memoir, in which he makes *A* and *B* depend on the rectification of the ellipse, or in the appendix, in which he gives a method for finding the length of the ellipse under any circumstances of excentricity. D'Alembert has expressly shewn that the co-efficients *A* and *B* depend on the rectification of the conic sections, and the same may be immediately collected from Le Gendre's memoir. In the series for the length of the ellipse, we consider Mr. Wallace as indebted for the principle of his method (to go no farther in quest of originality) to Mr. Ivory, who laid it down in that valuable essay to which we have more than once alluded. We cannot, however, dismiss the subject without again expressing our approbation of that perspicuity, and that analytical dexterity, which every part of Mr. Wallace's paper exhibits; and we hope that he will continue his researches, and by his contributions add worth and dignity to the volumes of the Edinburgh Transactions.

Description of some Improvements in the Arms and Accoutrements of Light Cavalry, proposed by the Earl of Ancram, Colonel of the Mid-Lothian Regiment of Fencible Cavalry, and F.R.S. Edinb., to his Excellency Marquis Cornwallis, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, &c.—The chief improvement here suggested relates to the Carabine, which is made to prime itself, and is lighter and shorter than the common one, yet carries a ball to an equal distance. Some other remarks are added: but how the memoir found its way into the Transactions of a learned and scientific body, we are at a loss to determine.

ART. IX. *Sketches on the Intrinsic Strength, Military and Naval Force of France and Russia;* with Remarks on their present Connexion, Political Influence, and future Projects. In two Parts. Part I. 4to. pp. 200. Hague. 1803. Imported by Harding, London.

THE singular production before us, though written in our own language, evidently comes, as it professes to do, from the other side of the water; and if the author of it be no great proficient in the art of composition, he possesses, or affects to possess, a very unusual share of information with regard to the interests and views of the several powers of Europe, their military establishments, their resources, and their relative situations. While we are surprised at the unusual store of facts which he communicates, we are equally struck by the bold, forcible, and original remarks with which he accompanies them; and, as many of each are particularly applicable to the present crisis, we shall submit them rather at large to our readers: though we shall not be able to give place to half the passages which we should wish to insert. The author, it must be admitted, is a harsh and ungracious counsellor, strongly painting our past misconduct, bluntly stating our recent errors, and directly attacking our most favourite prejudices. Instead of flattering our self-love, he humbles our pride, and mortifies our vanity. He employs invective to admonish us, and reproaches to reclaim us; while the earnestness and zeal which he displays in the cause of his country shew that his aim is laudable, and that his motives are pure. If his manner should repulse and his freedom offend the many, yet the wise and the dispassionate few will open their ears to his counsels, being convinced that they are disinterested and able.

We must apprize our readers that the work appears to have been finished a short time before the delivery of the King's message to the Parliament, announcing the hostile preparations in the ports of France; and that consequently some of its parts have lost their reference to the moment. We must also protest against being understood as giving our sanction to all the facts and remarks which are contained in this volume,—facts which we have had no opportunity of verifying, and remarks of which we are not politicians enough to judge.

In the opinion of this author;

'As matters now stand, the political powers and military force of continental Europe, are to be considered, as concentered in the governments of France and Russia. These two states have, each in its sphere, fought themselves over the frontiers of resistance; in understanding with one another, no power, or combination of powers can

an check, or interrupt the operations of either of them. South of the Danube and the Elbe, Europe is directly and indirectly subject to France; and the coasts of Barbary and Morocco will forthwith be colonized under her authority. North of the Elbe and Danube to the Frozen ocean, is under the dominion, and immediate control of Russia; Asiatic Turky and Persia may also soon fall under her yoke. If Austria and Prussia assume a sort of independency of one another, that very assumption secures the dependency of both, upon the Czar and the Consul: no doubt it will therefore be allowed, and encouraged, until both these governments can be dispensed with. How long the chiefs of those two mighty empires may agree, and continue to pursue their present system, cannot, perhaps at this moment, be determined; we shall therefore, in as far as relates to their neighbourhood, political ties and commercial intercourse with Great Britain, consider both France and Russia in their present state, and as they now stand relatively to the British Empire.'

Many important and instructive observations are made on the prospects of France in regard to manufactures, maritime trade, and fisheries, in case the late peace had continued; and the means of commanding the European market, which the political pre-eminence of Bonaparte would have conferred on him, are described in detail in so truly alarming a manner, that they in some degree diminish our regret at the re-commencement of hostilities.

A specimen of the bold original cast of the writer's politics is contained in the extract here subjoined:

'With respect to America, it is not easy to foresee how the United States and the French Republic may finally arrange their commercial intercourse with one ar . .

'Of the numerous f. and blunders committed by the several parties concerned in the late revolutionary war, next to *Great Britain*, the government of America has made the most irretrievable: to enter into war, for the mere purpose of acting upon the defensive, is the most ridiculous of all political absurdities. Such parties generally receive more blows than they give; and in the end, they are spurned at by their friends and despised by their enemies.

'As the United States are situate, possessing an immense length of coast, a great number of mercantile ports, and the several provinces producing but little variation in their exportable commodities, to enable their rapidly increasing population to maintain a profitable intercourse with the rest of the world, a certain portion of the sugar-trade is indispensably necessary. A small settlement, or two, would be of little importance to America; nor can it be expected that this government will be satisfied with such. But how are they now to acquire any great possession?

'During her warfare with France, or, at any time prior to the destruction of *Toussaint*, America might have easily secured St. Domingo; a single proclamation, declaring that island an integral part of the federal republic, and an independent state in the union, would have instanta-

neously rallied, both *blacks* and *whites* around her standard. And what had the United States to apprehend from France? *Caresses* and *attention:* but certainly no sort of danger.

'The acquisition of St. Domingo, would have been, both in a commercial and political consideration, every thing that America could rationally desire: it would have enabled the United States to carry on a wide, extensive, and profitable maritime trade; and, as it would have rendered the political and mercantile interests of America and Great Britain reciprocal and mutual, by securing the British possessions in the West Indies, it would have raised an insuperable barrier between the United States and their perfidious sister the French Republic *.

'The opportunity is now lost! The partial patriotism of her chief magistrate, has, to all appearance, deprived America, perhaps for ever, of becoming that conspicuous nation which nature and the spirit of her inhabitants, certainly designed her to be, in a few years. The politics of the acting president, seem to be guided by no other system, than the personal animosities of Mr. Jefferson: he seems to bear malice against the British government; and that hatred is, with him, a sufficient reason to make America the unconditional dupe of the French republic.

'St. Domingo lost, the Americans have turned their views towards the island of Cuba; they consider the acquisition of that settlement as the certain result of a quarrel with Spain, and they pretend to have already a plausible pretext to make a claim upon that forlorn monarchy. But will France, now *military* mistress of the gulph of Mexico, suffer to settle under the lee of St. Domingo, a power, which might thereby become her rival in the colony trade? Certainly not; the very idea is repugnant to common sense. The Consulate may, perhaps, permit, and even encourage America to quarrel with Spain, with Portugal, or with Great Britain; but the republic will reserve

---

* 'That St. Domingo, being a state of America, would have secured the possessions of Great Britain in the West Indies, admits, we think, of no sort of doubt. To maintain that settlement, and the tranquillity of its own coasts and maritime commerce, it would have become, with the government of America, a necessary policy to encourage, and *support if required*, the permanency of the maritime preponderance of the British empire. The United States could then never have any thing to apprehend from a naval power; nor from armies to be carried across the Atlantic Ocean direct. Nor could the West-India colonies of Great Britain be, in any wise, endangered by the vicinity of the Americans. That government, in possession of St. Domingo, could by no rule of prudence, nor maxim in politics, aim at the acquisition of more islands; the produce of that settlement would be abundant for the interior consumption of the United States, and for all useful purposes in their foreign trade; to attempt further aggrandisement by conquest, or to monopolize the sugar-trade, could not fail to combine Great Britain and France against them; a circumstance that, were they in possession of all the sugar-islands, they could not be prepared against for centuries to come.'

to herself, the objects of their differences as a pledge of their future tranquillity.

'Although the rulers of France know enough of the principles of sound policy, not to build the permanency of their government, upon the caprice, or partiality of temporary ministers; yet we see their leading system is to manage the official and public men in other countries, so as to render their influence, ignorance, and credulity subservient to the consolidation of the Consular republic. The *Versaillian* policy of the Consulate, being well seconded by a revolutionary audacity, and supported with energetic firmness, has contributed more than all the Jacobine armies of France, to subdue the corrupt and cowardly governments of other states. The Consuls have been remarkably fortunate in finding manageable men abroad, it is true, and it must be confessed they have known to make use of them; for should the governments of Europe and America hereafter see their errors, the Consulate has taken special care that they shall not have the means to retrieve them.'

The author shews that France is able to bring into the field, for the purposes of offensive war, as large a force as the rest of the European continent united, with the exception of Russia. France, he says, contains six millions of men capable of bearing arms, two of which are between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three.

The relative situations and respective interests of France and Russia are here ably depicted:

'The political powers and military force of continental Europe, are divided between the governments of France and Russia. These two mighty empires, are come in contact: Berlin, Vienna, and Constantinople, can only be considered as three neutral posts, situate in their line of demarkation. By the reduction of other states, the politics of Europe are much simplified; but that very circumstance renders the respective positions of the two dictatorial powers more critical. The intermediate field of their usual machinations is cleared, the slightest motion of the one, must now directly affect the other.

'A free, independent, and secure communication between the southern provinces of Russia and the Mediterranean, was an essential article in the fundamental system of Czar Peter; it has been pursued, with more, or less energy by all his successors; and, it is of such importance to the Russian empire that it can never be abandoned.

'The navigation of the Black sea, was a standing project in the politics of the French monarchy; it is now obtained, and to preserve it, is a consideration of the utmost consequence to the republic. The Turkish government, sunk as it is, into a lethargic effeminacy, an open passage through the Archipelago and the Dardanelles, gives to France, not only the direction of the trade of that empire, but what, to the Consulate, is an object of infinitely greater importance, it lays open the only vulnerable part of the frontiers of Russia.

'In the present state of things, can Russia and republican France go mutual sharers in the trade and government of the Turkish empire?

This is by no means likely; nay, we may venture to say, it is impossible. Which of the parties then is to give up its pretension? The cabinet of Petersburgh must certainly know, that should the consulate be allowed to assume an ascendancy at Constantinople, or, to intermeddle in the affairs of Turky, the fate of Moscow may again be disputed at Pultava! Will the present government of France retract and leave the Seraglio and St. Sophia to the desecration of Russians? In that case, a Cossack and Highland army, seconded by a Russian and British fleet, might yet confine the empire of Bonaparte to the government of his Gauls of the West. Or, can the ambition of Russia and the avarice of France be satisfied with a partial partition of Turky? It is a known fact, that the consul did propose to the court of Petersburgh, to leave Moldavia, Walachia, Bessarabia, Bosnia, and Servia, to the disposal of Russia and Austria, on condition that France might possess Candia, Negropont, and other Greek islands in the Archipelago. But Russia would as soon see France in possession of the canal of Constantinople and the Crimea, as suffer her to fix her feet on posts that might soon command the communication between the Black and Mediterranean seas. To propose an entire partition of the European dominions of the Turks, to whom give Thrace and Constantinople? Besides, Russia will never agree to a division that shall leave the Grecian islands to France; nor can it be expected that the Consulate will leave the Bosphorus to Russia.

'Thus, between these two governments matters seem to be come nearly to a crisis. Considering the characters of each resepectively, and the powers and attitude of the two empires, if the Consul possess only the half of those transcendent talents which his panegyrists are willing to allow him, he must certainly see, that their present cordiality cannot be of long duration*. And he is no doubt likewise aware, that

---

'* It is truly pitiful to see public ministers and men charged with the defence of nations, cajoling themselves in the hope, that Russia and France will quarrel and fight! Quarrel they certainly will, but when that event takes place, woe to their neighbours! While at peace, their mutual preponderance requires only dependency and obedience; at war, their hostilities will impose upon the eastern continent, submission and slavery.

'When the Czar and the Consul draw forth their legions in hostile array, mediation, armed coalitions, neutral conventions, and *demarcation-lines*, will be of little avail. Those powers have long been unused to cabinet warfare, and to courtier *étiquette* in the field. The intervention of other states may hasten their own subjection, but cannot ward off their fate. The chieftains of Russia and France will meet nearly on the centre of the world: the object of their quarrel will not be a bishoprick, a sugar-island, nor, who shall read their mass in Latin, or say their prayers in Greek: they will fight for the possession of the *Hellespont* and *Bosphorus*, two posts on which hangs *now* suspended, the empire of our eastern hemisphere. Such contending parties will not come out to skirmish and then mutually retire; nor will they fight for conquests to give away; the one will keep the field,—and with it, the dictatorship of the world.'

while

while Great Britain can powerfully interfere, to risk a quarrel with Russia would be imprudent and dangerous.

'In this situation it appears to us, and indeed daily occurrences seem to confirm our opinion, that the plan of the Chief Consul is, to manage the court of Petersburgh until he disengage his rear; that is, until he shall tie down the British government to passive inactivity.'

Respecting the Chief Consul, the author observes:

'Bonaparte has great advantages over his cotemporaries. He was brought up in the world, and in active life. Beginning his career as a subaltern, his profession obliged him to think; and the habit of thinking no doubt taught him to calculate. The revolution enabled him to see men of all descriptions exposed without disguise; and now Consul, he easily sees through the masks of those who have the vanity or folly to attempt to deceive him. This adventurer is in possession of absolute power, has the means to make that power irresistible, and has experience at an early period of life. He is the patron and protector of all sorts of principles, professions, and prejudices; and is himself bound by none.

'Amongst the absurdities of the times, it is not one of the least, to hear the legislators of Great Britain propping up the power of the British empire by the discontent and broils which they foresee generating in France, and with the jealousy which the politics of the republic is said to be raising amongst other continental governments. The obstinacy of infatuation is astonishing! Should the people of France be angry with the man who snatched their country from the precipice of inevitable ruin, and who raised *them* to the dictatorship of the world? And will they oppose his endeavours to consolidate their situation? But they are oppressed, says John Bull! If we ask with what?—the whole of John's *corps diplomatique* cannot tell. In politics and in public society, oppression is relative. To attempt to scare Bonaparte with the jealousy of other powers, is, perhaps, still more ridiculous! Those who have any power, are his associates in despoiling those who have none. What benefit could the change of the name of a chief produce to Great Britain, or to Europe? Would a General Moreau or a Masena be less a Frenchman than Bonaparte? No;—but we say they may be less *habile!* When the ability of enemies becomes a consideration with Britons, then alas! our legislators may go home and plant potatoes.'

The reader, who well considers the observations made in the passage which we shall now insert, will be assisted in forming a conception of the gigantic difficulties of the present times:

'It must be evident to the world, that the present rulers of the republic, from whatever point of view they are taken, can only be considered as rebel chiefs. They were born subjects of their king, most of them held offices in his service, and at mature age, swore allegiance to his government; he is alive, and at this time is morally, as well entitled to sit on the throne of France, as any hereditary monarch can be to sit on the throne of his ancestors. These usurpers know,

that, however pliable and passive the politics of other governments may have now and then appeared, it cannot be presumed that legitimate sovereigns should prostitute the dignity of their stations, and expose the safety of their persons and families in so palpable a manner as voluntarily to sanction the rebellion, robberies, pillage, and plunder of the republic; and associate in treaties of friendship and mutual support, with the irreconcileable enemies of all legal government. The Chief Consul knows, that the treaties, which he has imposed upon other states, are extorted bonds, and will never bind the conscience. He is well aware, that when his authority in France has occasion for help from abroad, his part of the drama will be nearly out. Nor can he suppose that his neighbours are less sensible, that the support of France implies her dominion. In short, rebels know that rebellion can only be legalized by ultimate success; and that while any legal government possesses the means of opposition and resistance, the success of the French republic cannot be considered as secure. The Consul may profess peace and friendship with all states; and he may offer alliances to the great, and protection to the weak; but every legitimate sovereign should know, that when the missionaries of Bonaparte approach his throne, they come either to spoil, crush, or undermine it. The destruction, or subjugation of all independent nations, especially of all rival powers, is with the rulers of France, a principle of self-preservation, and is, therefore interwoven with the very existence of their military community.'

Having gone through his sketch of the power and politics of France, the writer next states his views of those of Russia. In giving an account of the recent growth of the Russian power, he intrepidly remarks:

'Had Charles XII., after the battle of Narva, secured his posts on the Neva, Sweden might yet have been what Gustavus Adolphus left her. The acquisition of Noteburg, now Schlusselburg, Nyeskantz now Petersburgh, and of the Islands of Retusari now Cronstadt, posts of no consideration to the Swedish hero, secured to Russia the dominion of the north of Europe; and has enabled that government to extend a dictatorial influence over all Europe and Asia.' By the more recent acquisitions of the Crimea, Oczakow and Georgia;—Constantinople, Ispahan and Delhi are now as much in the power of Russia, as Stockholm, Warsaw, and Copenhagen, have long been. Had the peace-makers at Utrecht, secured an independent monarchy in Spain, and given to the United Provinces a territorial basis, such as sound policy, justice, and even common sense pointed out, Europe might yet have been composed of independent states. Had Great Britain at the peace of 1763, maintained her conquests, she would not have had to sign away the half of her empire in 1783. Nor would it have been necessary to purchase the respite of Amiens with the safety of the other half.'

The author ridicules the conduct of our diplomacy in the North of Europe, and censures the whole of our policy. The question respecting contraband, he regards as of no moment; and he

he maintains that, instead of insisting on it, we should have secured the friendship of Russia at any price, and have done all in our power to render flourishing and independent the kingdoms of Sweden and Denmark.

'It was (we are told) a speculation of the great king of Prussia, to have settled the crown of Poland, hereditary in the family of the Prince of Orange, and to have transferred the Stadtholdership to the House of Brandenburgh. We recollect that this project was mentioned in an indirect manner in London about 20 years ago; but to propose Prussia as a maritime power, was then considered as little less than high treason. This shews that old England is in some things consistent in her politics; that Spaniards and Italians might not become sailors, we guaranteed the Spanish empire to the French monarchy; and nearly a hundred years afterwards, that Dutch sailors should not become Prussians, we have preferred that the Batavian republic belong to the French consulate! France, Italy, Spain, and Holland make now but one state; whereas had Spain and Holland been enabled (as they but very lately might) to maintain their independency, we would have had still three maritime powers to cope with. By a similar train of good luck, assisted by our steady system of policy, we shall also see incorporated, the powers of Denmark and Sweden, with those of the Russian empire, and all the three will then make only one power.'

Stating what he supposes to be the reasons which determined Denmark and Sweden, when they declined to separate from Russia in order to make a common cause with us, he says that they recollected

'Our policy towards the republic of the United Provinces and the House of Orange from our campaign with Van Tromp in 1652 to that with admiral Story in the *Zuyder-zee* in 1799. Our desertion of the declining cause of the House of Austria at Utrecht and on several other occasions, and our suspicious conduct towards the king of Prussia in 1762, were scrupulously analyzed; and upon impartial examination, the result was found, not to be of such a nature as could inspire the sovereigns of Denmark and Sweden with any confidence in our protection. Besides these, the king of Sweden had fresh in his mind the promises we made of fleets and armies, to his father in 1788, 1789, and 1790. Nor had the Prince Royal of Denmark forgotten the blustering menaces of the British ministers at Copenhagen and Petersburgh upon that occasion. Both princes knew, that we had pledged the faith of the nation to Turky, to Prussia and to Poland; and they recollected our shameful compromise with the empress Catherine in 1791 whereby those powers were for some paltry mercantile consideration, abandoned to the mercy of Russia.

'How far our late negociations, and the result of them are calculated to inspire the continental governments with a confidence in our future friendship, will be noticed in a second part of these sketches.'

These are accusations which the advocates of the infallibility of the British Cabinet will find it difficult to repel:

'Since

'Since the House of Bourbon ascended the throne of Spain, the separation of the colony of St. Domingo from France, was, in as far as relates to Great Britain the most important event that has occurred in the politics of the world. It should have been considered by the British government, as brought about by the guardian angel of the empire, to affirm our national existence and perpetuate our maritime grandeur!

'Of every twenty years that have elapsed since the peace of Utrecht, we have had to fight ten with monarchical France, in defence of our foreign possessions and maritime trade. In that period all that we have acquired is Canada in farm, and have lost in property that immense empire which now makes the United States of America; we have incurred a debt that absorbs twenty millions sterling annually, of the industry of the public; we have lost the naval support of Holland, the markets of Europe for our manufactures, and all political connection with the continent. In the mean time, France has become a military state, has doubled her national powers, tripled her military force, disembarrassed herself from debt, roused the moral energy of the public by her conquests, extended her political influence from Washington to Moscow, and her military command from Bergen in Norway to Madagascar. In this relative situation we had the most indisputable of all rights, that of self-preservation, to have used every means in our power to prevent the French republic ever again acquiring possessions abroad. The revolution of France in itself was a matter of indifference, to Great Britain as a state; her Jacobinism was a bug-bear wherewith to frighten fools; or had she conquered continental Europe, what was that to us? It was our business to care, that neither France nor any power under her influence and authority should either conquer or retain a single port, post, nor settlement out of Europe; and above all things, Great Britain should have spent her last shilling to maintain a separation between France, republic, or monarchy, and St. Domingo. Rather than suffer that island to fall under the dominion of the Consulate, it would be good policy on our part, to give to any power, Russia, or America, no matter which, that would protect it, either independent or as a colony, the island of Jamaica as a *douceur*.'

'He charges us with not having turned to proper account the unexpected happy termination of the northern contest. Bonaparte, he says, concluded that we should have followed it up by an alliance injurious to his views and interests; and we are told that, under an apprehension of something of the sort taking place, 'all the talents and invention of the cabinet of Malmaison were occupied; and what, we must allow did more credit to the capacity of Bonaparte's ministers, than to the diplomatic sagacity of some other parties, before it was either known at the courts of Berlin, Vienna, or London, that any intercourse between France, Russia and Turky was opened, the conventions now subsisting between the emperor Alexander and the Consul, and between the latter and the Grand Signior,

were

were signed and ratified. It was then that Bonaparte resolved upon the entire subjugation of Italy, the partition of Germany, the acquisition of the kingdom of Fez, and the dominion of Brasil.'

If the author's information be correct, so far from indulging any hope that Russia will be friendly to us in the present contest, we ought rather to expect active hostility on her part.

Retaining to the last his severe and bold strain, the writer thus concludes:

'In as far as these sketches relate to France and Russia, we shall now only observe, that as these two great continental monarchies were seen to improve their national consistence at home, and to extend their political influence abroad, it should have been the most invariable system of Great Britain, as it was the sacred duty of her government to have directed all the power and influence of the British nation, towards the support and augmentation of the lesser states of Europe, whose situation was such, as could warrant the possibility of their being rendered permanent. These were, prior to the peace of Utrecht, *Holland*, *Spain*, and *Austria*; and, until the capitulation of Nystad in 1721, *Denmark* and *Sweden* came under the same description. To raise and keep up the maritime states, to extend their dominions at home and their possessions abroad, should have been our peculiar care; their interests were our own, and upon our prosperity depended their existence. This sort of policy was however too wide, and its principle too liberal for our contracted views; the spirit of commerce seldom looks beyond the prospect of immediate gain; instead of guiding, as the legislature should have done, the national spirit of commercial enterprise, towards the consolidation of the British empire and the independence of Europe, the British government itself has long been influenced by the narrow projects of mercantile speculation: thus we have lost our natural maritime allies without having gained a *nutmeg* by their fall. On the contrary, instead of having increased the sources of our commerce, wealth, and power, we have greatly declined; the powers of the British empire, compared to those of France alone, bear a far less proportion now, than they did a hundred years ago; when compared to those of France and Russia united, our inferiority appears still more alarming.

'However, although the secondary powers of Europe, and amongst them our maritime allies, are subjugated, or rendered dependent upon France and Russia, the world must not be given up for lost. The Russian nation cannot yet have forgotten what it owes to the glorious memory of its great founder and to that of Catherine II. Nor can the court of Petersburgh compromise the dignity of a sovereign and so far divest royalty of honour, honesty, and of all the attributes of a legitimate government, as to countenance the crimes of the rulers of France. Besides, Great Britain herself, now brought to the alternative, *tamely to submit to the domineering spirit of France*, or, *to unshackle the natural vigour of the nation by adopting a liberal system of politics*, may yet confine the dominion of those rapacious republicans within such frontiers as may secure the peace of the world. In extraordinary cases, to use extraordinary means is not only lawful, but

it

it is a duty. In the present political state of the civilized world, France is in Europe already too powerful; it is therefore the duty of all other powers, and of Great Britain in particular, to prevent the republic augmenting its force by the acquisition of foreign settlements. If the courts of Lisbon and Madrid cannot be roused up to a sense of the duty they owe to the great commonwealth of polished nations, their possessions must be taken from under the leaden hands of their torpid governments and made subservient, as nature designed them, to the happiness of mankind and to the independence of Europe; likewise, those luxuriant countries that may be said to groan under the chilling authority of that monstrous government of Turky and the Barbary states, should forthwith be appropriated to the same beneficial purpose.

'Instead of that common place phrase *balance of power* which never existed but on sheep-skin treaties, Great Britain has yet the means to raise, in Europe, in America, and on the ocean, such powers as would establish a real balance or barrier, which all the force and frantic rage of disappointed jacobinism could never break down. Then we would have no need to proclaim ourselves the saviours of Europe! A grateful world would do it for us.

'It should however not be forgotten, that we have only *one* alternative now remaining; to wit, to consign our children and the nation to a state, of all others the most repugnant to the feelings of men and the most degrading to human nature,—that of a *subordination to the French*: or, to break through those contemptible formalities which bind the hands of government and render all the glorious efforts of our irresistible powers of no effect.

'Are the king of Spain and the prince of Brasil, *as Vassals to Bonaparte*, more related to us, than were the king of Sardinia and the prince of Orange who both fought our battles? And is the correspondence of the Grand Signor, of the emperor of Morocco and the dey of Algiers with the first consul less hostile to our interests than that of the nabob of Arcot was with Tippoo Sultan? What are Spain, Portugal, Turky, and Morocco to us, when compared to the safety of the British empire? or what are all our miserable calculations on financial economy compared with British liberty?

'Rather than risk the possibility of ever being obliged to acknowledge a superior on earth, our last shilling, the movable property of the empire the *national debt*, and if necessary the blood of our *darling* children, must be to Britons no consideration.'

The second part of these sketches, it is said, will contain a general view of the politics and diplomatic history of Great Britain, from the peace of Utrecht to the present year. If we are to form any judgment from the summary of its contents here given, we may conjecture that it will constitute a very curious and interesting work.

If the positions of this able writer be well founded, it follows that, for a century and a half, our national policy has been ill-judged, contracted, and at variance with our own interests and those of Europe. We fear that, in his remarks on this subject,

subject, he too often has reason on his side; and we are of opinion that, if matters of this nature were discussed by persons possessing competent information, great good might result. From the collision of jarring sentiments, a more correct public opinion would form itself; and hints highly useful to statesmen would be suggested. The importance of advantages of this nature cannot well be estimated. Does not the crisis, in which Great Britain at this moment finds herself, verify the observation? for, if the wisdom and energy of her councils equalled the spirit of patriotism and devotion which animate her people, she might safely set the whole world at defiance; while she would exhibit a spectacle more sublime and awful than is to be discovered in the annals of time.

The novel points, and the best laboured in this work, which seem the most to require farther investigation and to invite fresh discussion, as well as most to merit the attention of our readers, are, among others, that of our acting in general on too confined and short-sighted a policy; that of not anticipating the views of France, and of not counteracting them by alliances founded on large and liberal principles; the importance of colonies; the error of giving up our acquisitions at the end of each war; and that of restoring those made in the revolutionary war to France and her allies at the peace of Amiens.

We enter our *caveat* most decidedly against all the author's remarks in derogation of the Polish and Swiss struggles; and we wholly dissent from his observations on the corn-laws.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1803.

GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 10. *The Circular Atlas*, and Compendious System of Geography; being a comprehensive and particular Delineation of the known World; whether relative to the Situation, Extent, and Boundaries of Empires, Kingdoms, Republics, &c. or to the Description of Countries, Islands, Cities, Towns, Harbours, Rivers, Mountains, &c. Comprising whatever is curious in Nature or Art. The Materials, derived from original Productions, and from Works of the first Authority, are arranged upon a Plan of Perspicuity and Conciseness, methodised so as to be accessible to every Capacity, and illustrated by circular Maps, from accurate Drawings, made expressly for this Work. By John Cooke, Engraver. Part I. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hurst, &c.

We have read the introduction contained in this publication, and see no reason for complaining of errors and inaccuracies, but of the inflation and

and turgidity of style in which the author delivers his precepts of philosophy. His learning and information are sufficiently abundant, but the English ladies would be better pleased, and better instructed indeed, if they were presented to them with greater simplicity. Some parts are almost ludicrous: 'the billiard-table and bowling-green,' says the author, 'may *innocently* represent the laws of motion.'

Again,

'Curiosity, it has been the general remark of mankind, is predominant in the female part of society; it has been observed, with equal truth, and greater candour, that this desire of novelty is implanted in the human breast for great and good purposes: uncommon pleasure is annexed to the first appearance of truth in the mind: the pleasure is exquisite, but transient; to repeat the delight, the understanding is prompted with a restless thirst of knowledge.'

Art. 11. *The Universal Atlas,* and Introduction to Modern Geography: In which are described, the most celebrated Empires, States, and Kingdoms of the World. With a general View of Astronomy; the Solar System; the Fixed Stars and Constellations; Definition of Geography; Figure and Motion of the Earth; Vicissitudes of the Seasons, &c.; a Description of the Terrestrial and Celestial Globes; with Geographical Problems; Eastern and Western Hemispheres, &c. Also, the Method of adverting to the Time of Day in distant Nations is clearly elucidated on a new Geographical Clock. The Whole illustrated with Thirty-one Maps and Plates, accurately delineated by an eminent Geographer. Engraved by John Cooke. The Introduction, and Geographical Descriptions, by the Rev. Thomas Smith. 4to. half-bound. Harris.

This is one of those books which contain *multum in parvo;* and an useful book, considering the quantum of information which it contains, it might have been, if the author would have descended from his high and lofty style, and have communicated his knowlege in plainer and more unadorned language. We give an instance from the beginning of the article Europe:

'In a geographical description of the habitable world, as divided into quarters, Europe claims the most distinguished position: not, indeed, on account of its extent, for it is the smallest of the four, but as a theatre on which the arts and sciences have long displayed their fascinating charms, and a subject affording infinite variety of character, government and manners:

'Blest with a temperate climate, and a richly diversified surface, it presents to our contemplation an assemblage of natural charms, comprising the rural, sublime, soft, and romantic, while the numerous mountains, seas, and rivers, which divide its several countries, are extremely advantageous to its inhabitants; as tending either to check the progress of despotism, to facilitate commerce between distant nations, or to excite human industry.

'Here the mind of man, ever inquisitive, ever anxious for a greater plenitude of knowledge, has been frequently refreshed with copious draughts

draughts from the pure springs of literature; a laudable thirst of discovery has been attended with the most felicitous success; the refulgence of Divine truth has (in many parts) dispersed the dark clouds of superstition; and innumerable transactions of importance have furnished an exhaustless treasure of instruction and entertainment.'

So also in the beginning of the account of Asia:

'The subject of this map is particularly entitled to the admiration of a contemplative reader; not merely on account of its extensive territories, salubrious air, luxuriant soil, delicious fruits, and those innumerable productions which sparkle in the mines, diversify the surface of the mountains, embroider the verdant plains, or impregnate the passing breeze with accumulated odours; but as the immediate scene of man's creation, and a country which the adorable Messiah vouchsafed to honour with his birth, residence, and expiatory sufferings: for here, according to the sacred records, the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, and formed our first parents out of the dust of the ground; here, subsequent to the destroying deluge, he accepted the grateful sacrifice of Noah; and, by confounding the languages at Babel, facilitated the planting of nations; it was in Asia that God established his once beloved people the Jews, and gave them the lively oracles of truth; it was here that his coequal Son performed the wonderous work of our redemption; and here the Christian faith was miraculously propagated, and sealed with the blood of innumerable martyrs. Edifices also were reared, empires were founded, and the worship of the Most High was celebrated in this division of the globe, while Europe, Africa, and America, were uninhabited and unexplored.'

The introduction is likewise very laboured. We by no means approve of this plan of disguising simple truths under meretricious words and phrases; of this unnatural union of rhapsody and philosophy:—the work was designed for the superficial, but the superficial cannot understand (however they may admire) such *very fine* writing as occurs in this publication.

The author makes an apology for not crouding his maps with names: there may be excess in most things: but the small maps of this Atlas could well have borne the burden of a few more provinces, rivers, and cities.

We do not mean, however, to condemn the present undertaking. The maps might have been made better, but we have seen worse; they will do some good; and in reading history, if better were not at hand, we should be very glad to make use of these.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 12. *An Exhortation to the due Observance of the approaching (late) National Fast:* in an Address from a Minister to his Parishioners. By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 8vo. 3d. Spragg.

Premising a distinction between political and party preaching, Mr. Pearson asserts that it strictly belongs to the clergyman's province to instruct his parishioners in all their political duties; one of which,

according to him, is 'to observe in a devout and solemn manner, *whether they see the propriety of the appointment or not*, every day of fasting and religious mourning, or of religious joy and thanksgiving, which the Sovereign in his pleasure may appoint.' The passage in italics savours too much of spiritual domination and tyranny, to be relished in the present age. People will think for themselves; and, as the Apostle Paul leaves Christians at liberty to *regard* a day or *not* to regard it, as they may see fit; they will not listen to Mr. Pearson when he enforces the observance of political fasts and festivals on them, 'whether they see the propriety of the appointment or not.' What is the merit of praying in opposition to a man's conviction, will, and inclination?

Art. 13. *The Evidence of Relation between our Present Existence and Future State*; with References to Dr. Paley's Natural Theology *. 8vo. 1s. Kerby.

Dr. Paley is here accused of leaving us, in his "Natural Theology," unsatisfied and uninformed with respect to the relation subsisting between our present life and that state which is to succeed it: but surely without sufficient cause, since he expressly maintains that the most reasonable view of the present life is that which regards it as a state of *probation*, preparatory to another in which all apparent disorders will be rectified. How consciousness is to be continued, or revived, is a question which Natural Theology cannot be expected to solve.

Art. 14. *An humble Attempt to promote Union and Peace among Christians*, by inculcating the Principles of Christian Liberty. To which is added, an Appendix, I. Concerning the Jews. II. Concerning Deists. III. Containing Short Extracts. By R. Wright. 8vo. pp. 186. Boards. Vidler, &c.

The object proposed by Mr. Wright is not more noble in itself, than the means which he would employ to effect it are pure and honourable. "Peace, his dear delight," is attempted to be advanced among Christians by arguments addressed to the understanding and to the heart; by arguments which cannot fail to captivate the liberal and enlightened part of the human species. We have perused this little volume with abundant satisfaction; and if we had less experience of the difficulty of expanding the minds of bigots and enthusiasts, we might expect considerable success to attend the generous and strenuous efforts of this rational and amiable Christian: who asserts true principles of religious liberty, and deduces from them, with perspicuity and force, the most important practical conclusions. If his remarks should not be found to possess the merit of absolute novelty, they are very seasonable; and while bigotry and intolerance prevail in any shape or degree among Christians, it is proper that they should be exposed.

It appears that Mr. Wright was animated to this undertaking by observing the narrow and intolerant spirit which still exists in many religious societies, respecting the terms of Church fellowship

* See Article IV. of this Review.

and

and communion; and could he induce them to adopt his more liberal views, a great obstacle to Peace and Union among the followers of Christ would doubtless be removed. He observes: 'could leading men of different parties be brought to converse together with freedom and candor, to set a proper value on integrity and moral excellence in those who differ from them, and to inculcate the principles of Christian liberty to the utmost of their power in their particular connections, the prejudices which Christians entertain respecting each other would soon abate, and more union take place among them.'

Mr. W. commences with a particular enumeration of the rights of conscience, which are well stated and clearly established; and he concludes his first chapter with laying it down as one of the laws of this code, that 'every man has a right to respect and esteem in proportion to his integrity, the purity of his conduct, and his efforts for the good of others:' reminding us that 'sentiments and forms of religion are of no use, any farther than they inspire the mind with integrity, purify the heart, and influence the conduct.'—A chapter follows on *Intolerance*, in which its hateful nature, and baneful tendency are strongly reprobated; and in which it is remarked that 'it is only lawful to attempt the removal of error by the communication of knowledge, and the overthrow of superstition by the propagation of truth.' We have next some strictures on *Orthodoxy*, in which it is shrewdly observed that 'the different denominations of Christians seem to have parted divine truth among them, as the soldiers did the Lord's garments; but the evil has been that each denomination has been too apt to think itself in possession of the whole, and to consider those who differ from them as enemies to truth.' As Mr. Wright has no respect for reputed Orthodoxy, he treats the cry of *Heresy* with great contempt, and invites Christians of different sects or heresies to consider the points on which they are agreed.

In a chapter on *Christian Society*, the author says;

'It is to be hoped that in the present enlightened age Christians are rapidly increasing in wisdom and liberality—that Christian societies will expel bigotry and fanaticism from among them, and substitute rational views, manly piety, and a benevolent spirit in their place; and that many new societies will be formed and conducted on the free and liberal principles of the Gospel; but to accelerate these things it is necessary that those who have rational views of Christianity, and possess its liberal spirit, should become members of churches; or, where that is not practicable, form themselves into societies, that they may unite their exertions the more effectually in the promotion of every thing truly Christian.'

It is needless, perhaps, to add that Mr. W. contends for the exercise of *mutual forbearance* among Christians, as necessary to the preservation of the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace. He regards the present age as an Age of Inquiry; and he is persuaded that by free inquiry, united with liberality, Christianity will ultimately prevail over all opposition, and become universally triumphant. He is not less generous to Jews and Deists than he is to professed

believers; he pities the former, and in some measure pleads their cause; and as to the latter, he disapproves of their being treated with wrath and bitterness. Throughout, the sentiments of a generous mind are conspicuous; and if Mr. W. be not always speculatively right, we are confident that they who adopt his principles and rule of conduct will never be practically wrong.

POLITICAL.

Art. 15. *The Speech of Lord Minto*, in the House of Peers, June 6th, 1803, on certain Resolutions of Censure on the Conduct of His Majesty's Ministers, moved by Earl Fitzwilliam. To which is added, His Lordship's Speech at a General Meeting of the County of Roxburgh, held at Jedburgh, 15th August 1803, on moving an Address to His Majesty: Ordered by the Meeting to be printed and circulated in the County. 8vo. pp. 199. 3s. 6d. sewed. Budd.

We have not perused any pamphlet in which the argument for the renewal of hostilities is discussed with more ability than in this Speech of Lord Minto. The whole question is stated with such ingenuity, fairness, and precision, that the conclusion is not only luminous but almost irresistible. His Lordship overwhelms the *Peace of Amiens* with his unqualified reprobation, giving it the title of an *ex-parte* war, which, while it took away from us our swords, left the enemy in full power to pursue their conquests and acquisitions. That our negociators at Amiens were guilty of a great oversight in not specifically restricting France from making any addition to her territory; and that our ministers were also blameable in proceeding to fulfil the terms of the treaty, especially in any material feature, (as in giving up the Cape of Good Hope,) notwithstanding the aggrandizement of the enemy, shamefully accomplished even before the wax affixed to the preliminary articles could be well cold; are points on which there is at present a very general agreement. Now if these premises be allowed, a justification of the war must involve in it some censure of Ministers.

Lord Minto is of opinion that the common ground of justification is too narrow: though he contends that the necessity of it is manifest, even if it stood on the single question of Malta. The position on which he founds his argument is that such changes have taken place subsequently to the treaty of Amiens, and changes which have been effected by the French Government, that the 10th article of that treaty is completely impracticable; and that now our only security is the annexation of Malta, in perpetuity, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions. A description of the importance of this fortress to us forms part of the argument; and, as we do not remember to have seen this subject any where so fully discussed, we shall make an extract from this part of the noble Lord's Speech. It has been often observed that this island, by its situation and the impregnable harbour of Valette, commands the channel between Sicily and the coast of Barbary; that it is the true key of the Levant, and the advanced work of those who would either defend or invade Egypt, Greece, or Syria: his Lordship adds:

'Malta

'Malta is indispensable as a naval post and arsenal. In our wars with France, it has always been found necessary to keep a considerable squadron in the Mediterranean. The naval forces of the enemy are thus divided, by cutting off the communication between their two principal ports. It has been necessary too, for the purpose of protecting our Mediterranean trade, and for annoying that of the enemy. The presence of a British fleet has, at the same time, been looked to by the once independent states whose coasts are washed by that sea, as a bulwark against the power of France, which could in those times threaten their coasts alone. The Alps and the Austrian power were their rampart on one side; the British fleet were their Alps on the other. But if it was expedient, in all wars, to maintain a naval superiority in the Mediterranean, it is become obviously indispensable in the present circumstances, since it is not only necessary to separate Brest from Toulon, and to keep the French squadrons fitted out in the Mediterranean, from participating in any enterprise beyond the limits of that sea; but the principal business of the war, and the projects of the enemy, lying now within those bounds themselves, a tenfold closer and more vigilant guard must be kept upon them. It may then be assumed, that we must, in all wars, maintain a powerful fleet in the Mediterranean. That measure requires, in its turn, the means of refitting and refreshing our fleet; and if we would not commit so great a concern to blind chance and fortune, those means must not be precarious, but certain.

'Your Lordships know, that there are few seas more boisterous than that of which we are speaking. The principal station of the Mediterranean fleet is off the harbour of Toulon. The Gulph of Lyons is proverbial for sudden and violent gales of wind. The ships being always near the land, are obliged to carry sail, either to avoid the shore, or to keep their station; and I believe it is not too much to say, that there is no station of the British navy, in which the squadrons are exposed to more frequent accidents and damage, from weather alone, than the Mediterranean. A port for shelter, and to refit, is as indispensable to our ships, as their masts and sails themselves. Certain and speedy access to a refitting port and arsenal, is still more necessary after battle, than after a gale of wind. If our squadron has an opportunity of engaging a French fleet, the event, I trust, would not be doubtful, and we may reckon securely on victory. But it must happen rarely, indeed, that even the conqueror should be in a condition to keep the field; such triumphs are not obtained without some loss, and some damage. If the victorious squadron cannot repair its damages, and resume its station, the victory must have all the consequences of a defeat. The British fleet may have captured a third of the enemy, may have sunk and destroyed another third, and may have sent the remainder beaten and crippled into Toulon. Yet, if the victorious fleet must quit the ground, must retire to a distant country with her trophies and her glory, and cannot soon renew the indispensable operations of that station, it is obvious that the vanquished and fugitive enemy, refitted in the shortest possible time, issues again from his port, and accomplishes, without opposition or obstacle, the very object for which the battle was

fought. Such an interval in the vigilance and exertion of the British fleet, may, in this manner, determine the success of that naval campaign. The result of that campaign may decide the issue of the war; and a victory may thus have cost nothing less than the empire itself, while the same action, with a port of our own under our lee, might have confounded the counsels, broken the power, and overthrown the ill-established, usurped dominion of the enemy.—

'Is it said, that we have prospered formerly without Malta? I answer, that a great change has, of late years, been made in every part of the policy of the nations of Europe by that fearful prodigy with which it has been visited, the French revolution. In former wars, we had little occasion for Malta, and none, as a refitting and refreshing port, because others were open to us. If we had no possession of our own in that sea; if we had not Port Mahon, in Minorca; St. Fiorenzo Bay, and the harbour of Ajaccio, in Corsica; Porto Ferrajo, in the island of Elba; if we were excluded from all the ports of Spain, as well as those of France; we had access to the Mole of Genoa, to Leghorn Roads, or to the Bay of Naples.

'In the present state of universal subjugation to France, there is not a port, a roadstead, a bay or creek, in the whole circumference of the Mediterranean, from which our fleets can depend on obtaining a bullock, a pound of biscuit, or a butt of water, when we really want them, much less the important succours of a friendly dock or arsenal.

'We can reckon securely on no aid, on no supplies, on no shelter, no, not the most necessary, except in those ports which are kept and protected by our own troops, and administered by our own servants and officers. Such is Malta; and the property which renders the advantages derived from that island inestimable, is, that they are not precarious. Malta is impregnable; it is our own in the centre of a hostile world, and may be surrendered by ourselves, but can never be taken from us by an enemy.'

From the particular case of Malta, Lord M. advances to a justification of the war on more general and enlarged principles. He deprecates the monstrous power and aggrandizement of France, as fatal to the tranquillity of Europe; he laments the destruction of the smaller states; and he condemns the fraudulent appointment of Bonaparte to the Presidency of the Italian Republic, as well as the tyranny and extensive domination which result from the subjugation of Switzerland. Yet he flatters himself that the enormous power of France may be reduced: but, should this be found impossible, he advises us to aim at a commensurate greatness as our only security against her. The indiscreet cession of the Cape of Good Hope is strongly condemned; it being 'one of the last posts on the Globe which we should have placed in the custody of our irreconcileable rival and enemy, the First Consul of France.' It is the opinion of Lord Minto that the result of the Congress at Lyons ought to have terminated the negociation at Amiens; since submission to such an insult could only lead to farther humiliation and certain calamity. As to the treaty there so inauspiciously concluded, he regards it as completely cancelled; and having now abandoned the system of imbecility

becility and weakness, and resumed those arms which were so inconsiderately laid aside, he hopes that we shall persevere in the contest till we can negociate in a manner becoming a great and independent nation, and till such a result can be obtained as is consistent with our honour and safety.

In the Speech at the Roxburgh county Meeting, Lord Minto stigmatizes the conduct of the First Consul, explains the nature of the contest into which his ambition has plunged us, exhorts his countrymen to a faithful discharge of the duties which they owe to their country, and animates them to a faithful and strenuous discharge of them by the most powerful motives.

Art. 16. *Address to the British Nation and Government, on the present State of Public Affairs:* intended to promote the Union and Defence of the Country. By a Friend to the Liberties and Happiness of Mankind. 8vo. 2s. Ogle, Edinburgh and London.

This writer observes that, in the late war, the objects of England, in conjunction with the other powers, were the subjugation of France and the change of its government; that in the present war the objects of France are the conquest of Britain and the destruction of its government. From the circumstance of France having been able, by the energy and alacrity of her movements, to defeat the combined efforts of her enemies, we derive a proof of what men can do when their all is at stake; and, in our present circumstances, this is a subject of instructive and animating contemplation.

By way of preface to the chief points of discussion, we are here presented with a portrait of the private and public character of Bonaparte, and with a view of the preferable effects of commerce compared with those of warlike ambition, in reply to an assertion made by Mr. Fox in the House of Commons, "that if blood must be shed, he had rather see it flow to gratify the ambition of an Alexander, than to fill the coffers of merchants." Passing to the present state of the country, the author considers us as suffering for the sins of a former administration; while France is as much the dupe of Bonaparte's ambition as we were formerly of that of Mr. Pitt. Yet, continues he, in spite of all the animosity and prejudice excited during the late contest, 'nothing can afford a more striking conviction of the sincere desire of the British nation and government to obtain and live in peace, than the many sacrifices they have made for this purpose.' France, on the other hand, instead of making cessions, has proceeded in the career of conquest, annexation, and robbery. Her conduct has been the reverse of ours, and the crime of insatiable ambition is peculiarly her own. Those irritating and hostile measures, by which our suspicions were raised and the hope of peace at last banished, are here enumerated: but, as they have been often mentioned in other pamphlets, a repetition of them is unnecessary. Our retention of Malta (the grand bone of contention) is vindicated on moral principles, on the particular circumstances of the case, and on the ground that the First Consul avowed his hostile designs against our Eastern possessions. Baffled, however, in his projects, the enemy now threatens us with the fate of Carthage: but he cannot put this threat in execution if

we are true to ourselves; and this writer, from surveying our present united state and military attitude, concludes that if an invasion be attempted there is little chance of its success. Indeed he is so thoroughly convinced of our superior advantages in this defensive war, that he invokes this hostile visit of Bonaparte as the most effectual means of ending the war, and of humbling his power.

In examining the state of political parties among us, this writer speaks in very degrading terms of Mr. Pitt's abilities, and accuses him of having given birth to that usurpation and tyranny which at present threaten our existence: but, though he is extremely partial to Mr. Fox, he does not wish to see him Minister. Mr. Addington is his favourite, and the vindication of his conduct in making the peace, and in his subsequent forbearance, is undertaken: but here the author, though perhaps better acquainted with the interests of trade, is not equal as a politician to Lord Minto. Towards the conclusion, he adverts to matters of political controversy foreign to the present occasion, and which ought now especially to be kept out of sight.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *Glasgow.* A Poem. By John Mayne. Crown 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Praise conferred by men of real genius and celebrity is not only gratifying, but on ingenuous minds it acts as a powerful stimulus. It was thus that the commendation which the outlines of the poem before us received from the late Dr. Geddes operated on the author; who, not satisfied with the original compliment, or with acknowleging it with a *lætus sum laudari à te laudato*, has endeavoured to render his poem more worthy of the approbation with which it was first honoured. The first sketch of it was published in December 1783 in the Glasgow Magazine, and was mentioned by Dr. Geddes in his *Epistle to the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland*, in flattering epithets; in consequence of which, Mr. Mayne has been induced to revise and extend it, and to bring it into the form in which it now appears.

This little production of the Scottish Muse certainly possesses much simplicity and beauty. Glasgow, as the seat of learning, commerce, &c. &c. with its surrounding scenery, is well delineated; and historical and local allusions are explained in a body of notes at the end: but to accommodate it to readers South of the Tweed, there should also have been a glossary of the Scottish terms.

That Glasgow is intitled to the poet's praise by its consequence, opulence, and beauty, will be evident from the following particulars contained in the notes:

'The population of the city and suburbs of Glasgow, according to the enumeration made in the month of June 1801, by virtue of the late Act of Parliament, amounted to 83,760. In 1772, according to Mr. Pennant, the inhabitants were computed at 40,000. Between the years 1611 and 1617, the number of persons in the city, agreeably to the parochial register for those years, amounted only to 7,645!

'At present it would be a difficult matter to convey an adequate idea of the increasing population and opulence of the city of Glasgow. Since

Since the Peace, these have advanced, as far as can be judged from external appearances, with a rapidity unequalled in the annals of this, or, perhaps, of any other city in Europe.'—

'The principal street in Glasgow, running East and West, is nearly a mile and a half long, and is adorned throughout with handsome houses, which, for a certain length, are built over *arcades*, supported by pillars—the admiration of strangers, on account of the beauty they add to the City, and of the shelter they afford to the inhabitants who have occasion to be in the streets in wet weather.

'Building ground to the amount of nearly 100,000l. was disposed of lately in one week; some of it at the enormous rate of three guineas the square yard; or, at the rate of nearly 18,000l. per acre: and it is confidently affirmed, that, for the present season, 1803, building-contracts, to the amount of four hundred houses, have been entered into; in addition to the erection of a number of very large cotton spinning-mills, to be worked by steam-engines, in the immediate vicinity of the town.'

In a poem which has for its theme this flourishing city in the Northern part of the Empire, an apostrophe to *Industry* may be expected; and as this part may be most conveniently detached, we shall take is as a specimen, by which the reader will be enabled to estimate the merit of the whole:

'Hail, Industry! thou richest gem
That shines in Virtue's diadem!
While Indolence, wi' tatter'd hem,
Around her knee,
Sits, chitt'ring, like the wither'd stem
O' some boss tree!

'To thee we owe the flocks o' sheep
That glad Benlomond's * cloud-capt steep—
The pregnant mines that yield yon heap
O' massy coals—
And a' the tenants o' the deep,
Caught here in shoals!

'And a' the villas round, that gleam
Like spangles i' the sunny beam;
The bonny haughs that laughing seem,
Wi' plenty growing;
And a' the bleach-fields on ilk stream
Thro' Clydesdale flowing!

'Hence, Commerce spreads her sails to a'
The Indies and America:
Whatever makes a penny twa,
By wind or tide,
Is wafted to the Broomielaw,
On bonny Clyde!

'* Benlomond, the most western of the Grampian Hills, is 3,260 feet higher than the level of the sea.'

'Yet shou'd the best exertions fail,
And fickle Fortune turn the scale—
Should a' be lost in some hard gale,
Or wreckt on shore—
The Merchants'-House* makes a' things hale
As heretofore.

Wi' broken banes should Labour pine,
Or Indigence grow sick and dwine,
Th' Infirmary, wi' care divine,
Unfolds its treasure,
And turns their wormwood cup to wine—
Their pain to pleasure!

'O! blessings on them and their gear,
Wha thus the poor man's friends appear!
While mony a waefu' heart they cheer,
Revive and nourish—
Safe thro' Life's quicksands may they steer!
Like GLASGOW, flourish!'

Younger Reviewers might have selected the stanzas in praise of the 'strappan lasses, tight and clean,' for which Glasgow Green is celebrated: but as our dancing days are over, it is prudent in us not to warm our imaginations by the contemplation of Scottish beauty.

Art. 18. *The Test of Union and Loyalty*, or the long-threatened French Invasion. Written and spoken by W. F. Sullivan, A. B. late of the Theatres-Royal, Windsor, Weymouth, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Poems written to be spoken, and which may have succeeded tolerably well in delivery, cannot always with good policy be committed to the press; where they must lose the advantages of elocution, and where the faults of the author cannot be concealed by the abilities of the actor. Mr. Sullivan's Address, being adapted to the circumstances of the times, and being in perfect unison with the loyal feelings and patriotic enthusiasm of the people, has been admired, though its merit as a poetic and correct composition is not considerable: *e. g.*

'All *local* prejudice thrown by, forgot—
"*Tria juncta in uno*," in true lover's knot,
Link'd in one int'rest, in affection warm
"*Quis separabit?*" shall our motto form!'
'In vain proud *Gallia* all her host opposes
The battle's now—"*Pro aris et focis.*'

Goodness of intention must sometimes atone for faults in execution.

'* The Merchants'-House is one of the many well-endowed charitable institutions, for which Glasgow is remarkable. From its peculiar funds, decayed members, their widows, and families, are provided for by annual pensions, at their own houses, in proportion to the rank which they held in society.'

Art. 19. *Four Heroic Epistles of Ovid*; translated into English Verse. Crown 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Dwyer. 1803.

The present selection is offered as a specimen of an intended version of the *Epistolæ Heroïdum*. If the sense of the original be in general correctly rendered, but we apprehend that much polishing would be required, to render this author's lines adequate representations of those of the Roman Bard. The translator's faults consist chiefly in careless and sometimes vulgar expressions, which might have been avoided by more attention. For example:

P. 18. 'My flooded cheeks my furious nails *infest*.'

P. 23. 'But he his prize a bold and am'rous youth
Restor'd a virgin, *likely tale forsooth!*'

P. 27. '*More last* commands have I of import dear.'

This line reminds us of Addison's story of "more last words" of Mr. Baxter.

In p. 32, we observe a passage completely obscured by the want of the relative:

'Let Menelaus stung with jealous pain,
Her Paris won by force, by force regain,'—

The meaning is her, *whom* Paris won.—

We shall now give a sample of the general style of this version:

'Thus thy Penelope, Ulysses, greets,
Thus to return, her lingering lord, intreats:
Stay not to answer; bane of every joy
To Grecian maids, low lies detested Troy,
Troy, and old Priam and his conquered host,
Scarce worth the labours and the tears they cost.
O had the adulterer in the deep been laid,
Ere his proud fleet for Lacedemon made!
Mine had not prov'd a cold forsaken bed.
Nor had I tedious days in sorrow led,
Nor while I sought to waste the night unblest,
The pendent web my widow'd hands oppress.
How oft my fears beyond the truth would rove!
How full of fond solicitude is love!
At thee I thought the fiercest foe must aim,
And turn'd all pale at Hector's hated name;
Hector, they said, Antilochus had slain,
Then caus'd Antilochus my coward pain;
When bled Patroclus arm'd in borrow'd mail,
Fast flowed my tears that stratagem should fail;
The Lycian spear Tlepolemus bedew'd,
Thy fate, Tlepolemus, my grief renew'd:
Till every Grecian in the battle slain,
Chill'd my fond bosom as the icy plain:
But to chaste love some god protection gives,
Troy lies in ashes, and my husband lives.
The Greeks return, at blazing altars bend,
Barbaric spoils to Grecian gods suspend;

Maids

Maids for their lovers sav'd their offerings bring,
Troy's fates subdued by theirs the lovers sing,
Old men admire, and trembling girls grow pale,
While the fond wife devours the husband's tale.
One, on the table, draws the battle's line,
And Troy, all Troy describes in drops of wine.
'Here Simois flow'd, Segeum's land was here,
Here Priam's palace seen its head to rear;
This was the ground the wise Ulysses chose,
Thy proud pavilion there, Achilles, rose,
There, where uncurb'd, the fiery coursers drew
The mangled Hector, trembling as they flew.'—

If this attempt is to be pursued, we must add our earnest recommendation of the *lime labor* to the translator.

FAST-DAY SERMONS, *19th October* 1803.

Art. 20. *David's Choice; or, successful Invasion a sorer Evil than Pestilence or Famine.* By J. Lettice, D.D. Vicar of Peasemarsh in Sussex. 4to. 2s. 6d. Clarke.

A great sameness always pervades sermons of this description; and at present, the monotony is unparalleled. If this sameness, however, be a source of dulness to us as reviewers, it is consolatory to us as lovers of our country; because, in finding that we have no differences of opinion to notice, we have the pleasure of observing that the Clergy of all denominations are animated by the same laudable spirit. Dr. Lettice first paints the vast magnitude of the evil with which we are threatened, and then alarms our consciences with the recollection of some of those national sins by which we may have provoked the Almighty. He particularly specifies our presumptuous confidence, pride, love of pleasure, and religious indifference.

Art. 21. Preached in the Cathedral of Peterborough. By the Rev. Spencer Madan, A.M. Prebendary of that Cathedral. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.

After having glanced to the case of the Jews as described in the text (Hab. iii. 2.), the preacher invites us to consider *our own case* and *to learn our own lesson.* We are cautioned against cherishing any hope from the idea that our enemies are more wicked than ourselves, and are charged to examine the immoral features of our own character, and to correct our own deformitities; if we wish that the Ruler of Nations, would, with respect to us, "in the midst of wrath remember mercy." Mr. Madan describes our duty as Christians and Britons in this our *vital struggle.*

Art. 22. *Causes of the Inefficacy of Fasts:*—Preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Dr. Gardiner laments the shortness of the interval between the late *thanksgiving* for peace and the *fast* on the renewal of war. Leaving to others the particular detail of our *political*, he professes to undertake the description of our *moral* and *religious* situation; whence reasons are deduced to shew why God does not regard our ceremony

of Fasting. The inference is that National Reformation is necessary to insure national prosperity.

Art. 23. Preached at the Parish Church at Cheshunt St. Mary, Herts. By the Rev. W. A. Armstrong. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Far from urging any claim to novelty, Mr. Armstrong is aware that his sermon contains only those sentiments which every Christian and Briton must feel: he acquitted himself, however, to the satisfaction of his parishioners; and his readers must allow him praise sufficient to gratify his moderate expectations.

Art. 24. *What has the Poor Man to lose in the Event of a successful Invasion?*—Preached in the Parish Church of Warrington. By Johnson Grant, A. B. 8vo. 4d. Vernor and Hood.

We are prepared by this title for a political rather than a religious discussion. Mr. Grant bids his hearers to recollect, from the woeful experience of Europe, that they have nothing to expect from the Invaders but plunder, violence, and destruction; that, in the event of our subjugation by the foe, the rich would be robbed, and the poor made "hewers of wood and drawers of water;" and in course that it is the interest of both to make a most vigorous resistance.

Art. 25. *British Liberty considered with respect to its Origin, its Progress, and its Defence:*—Preached at the Chapel in Hanover Street. By Nathaniel Philipps, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The history of British Liberty, and the sketch of the British Constitution, here given, (though not faultless,) are sufficiently correct to impress our hearts with gratitude for the distinguished blessings which we enjoy, and to animate us with an enthusiastic fortitude in their defence. Dr. P. invites all parties to make a common cause in this grand contest, and to resist the invader of that country which we must love as the abode of our ancestors, as our own birth-place, and as the seat of liberty and law.

Art. 26. *Confidence in God, the Bulwark of a Nation;—Christianity the solid Foundation of Patriotism and Courage.*—Delivered at the Dissenters' Chapel, Brentford-Butts. By N. T. Heineken. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Mr. Heineken informs his readers that, on preceding occasions, he had objected to the observance of *war fasts*, but that he now considers himself as imperiously required to deviate from his usual line of conduct. His patriotism is vivid and animating; and his exhortations are calculated to rouse all the energies of the mind, and to prepare us for every difficulty and sacrifice which the assertion of our liberty and independence may require. Among national deliverances, he particularly recounts the history of the Spanish Armada as bearing a striking resemblance to the circumstances of the present time; subjoining a pious wish that the sequel of the present conflict may be also similar. He concludes with specifying the various ways in which Christians, in seasons of public danger, may contribute to the general welfare.

Art.

Art. 27. *The Duty of every Briton at this perilous Moment:*—Preached at Worship-street. To which is added an Account of the Destruction of the Spanish Armada; being the greatest Force ever brought together for the Invasion of this Country. By John Evans, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

After having so lately congratulated ourselves on the return of peace, why are we roused by the sound of the trumpet and the clangor of arms? Mr. Evans replies, "*An Enemy has done this!*" an enemy who wishes to immolate us on the altar of his ambition. The preacher's feelings towards such an enemy are in perfect unison with those of all his countrymen, and he offers such admonitions as are calculated to excite our heroism, and to assist us in the discharge of our duty in the awful circumstances in which we are placed. Like the preceding writer, he bids us mark the conduct of our ancestors at the time when the Spanish Armada threatened our coasts, and be of good courage. On our present unanimity he reflects with comfort, recollecting the well-known fable of the Bundle of Rods.

Art. 28. Preached at Chatham Church. By the Rev. James Lynn, M. A. 4to. 2s. Wilkie.

Mr. Lynn is alive to the dreadful consequences which would result from the success of the enemy, and describes them with the laudable view of animating our courage and exertions: but with alarm he blends no inconsiderable portion of hope. 'If God,' says he, 'spared the profligate Ninevites, because they repented at the preaching of Jonah, will he not, think ye, look with an eye of pity on us, who have "a greater than Jonah" on our side?' With this encouraging representation, however, other parts of his discourse do not exactly accord. In conclusion, he asks, 'if the menaces of an upstart mortal are able to call forth our circumspection and energy, how is it that we are not quickened to a proper sense of our everlasting danger?'

The language and argumentation of this sermon are not very correct.

Art. 29. *The Duty of Christians to seek the Peace of the Country in which they dwell.* By Richard Wright. 8vo. 1s. Vidler.

It would be a misapplication of a fast-day to waste it in a retrospection of the political measures which have brought us into our present situation, as a nation: 'We are in it,' says this preacher, 'and the great object should be for every one to do what he can to extricate us from our present difficulties.'

The advice here given is of a religious kind, and it is enforced by motives arising from a consideration of the peculiar advantages and blessings which, as Britons, we enjoy.

Other SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 30. *Britain's Defence:*—Preached Aug. 21, 1803, in the Protestant Dissenting Meeting-House, Battersea. By Joseph Hughes, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Button.

Averse from the hostile system, Mr. Hughes laments the unsheathing of the sword, and would have even soothed and supplicated in order to maintain peace: but, if war be unavoidable, if the aim of

of the enemy be to devastate and enslave Britain, he would then address his armed countrymen in the language of David, "Be of good courage and play the men, &c." To exertions, however, in the tented field or on the briny wave, he recommends us to unite the advantages of social prayer, and to cherish the sentiments and habits of genuine devotion. He views with serious apprehension the passion for arms which is now generally excited, and represents the Defence of Britain as consisting not in the pride of martial array, but in putting on the armour of Christian piety. 'Were we,' says he, "a holy nation," the violence of the enemy would evaporate in gasconade.' On this score, how slender are our hopes! yet he does not fail to cheer up his countrymen.

Art. 31. *The Strength of Britain:*—Preached July 31, 1803. 8vo Pamphlet. Printed by Pote and Williams, Eton.

Neither the name of the preacher of this discourse, nor the place at which it was delivered, is mentioned: but the sentiments contained in it are full of loyalty and patriotic zeal, and are in unison with the manly feelings of the British Nation.

Art. 32. *Piety and Courage:*—Preached in Portland Chapel, 17th July, 1803. By the Rev. John Crofts, A. M. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

With a humble dependence on divine assistance, we are here exhorted to oppose the modern Sennacherib, who is raising his armies to make *this land of Canaan* the scene of blood and desolation; and as the existence of our dearest and most invaluable rights is now at stake, the preacher blows his trumpet in Zion to rouse us with fortitude to prepare for the combat.

Art. 33. *Good Effects of an United Trust in an Arm of Flesh and Arm of the Lord:*—Preached at Cuxton, Kent, July 31, 1803. By the Rev. Charles Moore, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The object of this discourse is the same with the preceding. It requires us to make the most vigorous preparations against the enemy, and in prayer to implore the Almighty to insure our success by fighting for us.

Art. 34. *The Sword of the Lord and of Gideon:*—Preached in the Parish Church of Epsom, Surrey. By the Rev. Robert Gutch, A. B. 8vo. 1s. Nichols.

Mr. Gutch holds up the conduct of France to the detestation of the Universe, and concurs with "the Multitude of the preachers" in commending the wisdom of the Government, and the patriotic union of the people, in averting the storm with which she is preparing to desolate our land.

Art. 35. *National Defence:*—Preached in the Parish Churches of Wainfleet, All Saints, and Thorpe, in the County of Lincoln, 7th August, 1803, (the Day on which "Important Considerations for the People of this Kingdom" were distributed amongst the Inhabitants of the above-named Parishes). By the Rev. Peter Bulmer, A. B. 8vo. 6d. Spragg.

Art.

Art. 36. *In Defence of the Country:*—Delivered in the Parish Church of Clewer, Berks, Aug. 7, and before the Troops in Garrison, at Windsor, Aug. 14, 1803. By the Rev. M. H. Luscombe, A.B. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

These two discourses are similar in their representations and tendency to the sermon of Mr. Guteh. The doctrine inculcated is that 'on our Unanimity rests our Security.'

Art. 37. Preached at the Parish Church of Gillingham in Kent, July 31, 1803, on Occasion of the United Exertions of his Subjects, being called forth by His Majesty against the threatened Invasion. By William Chafy, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

An exhortation to universal philanthropy, brotherly love, religion, and loyalty, as the surest means of preserving our independence and prosperity.

Art. 38. *The Duty of defending our Country:*—Preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Peter, Exeter, Aug. 19, 1803. By the Rev. Edward Drewe, L.L.B. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

Though *the Love of our Country* be not particularly inculcated in the Gospel, we are justified, says Mr. Drewe, by the authority of our Saviour's example, in placing it in the class of Christian virtues. Patriotism, he observes, was not made the theme of preaching either by Christ or his Apostles; because the miserable state of the world, with the renewal of which we are now threatened, left no man a country, all being slaves to Roman tyranny. We are referred to the O. T. for sentiments of patriotic affection, and for lessons of patriotic duty, especially in the hour of our country's danger; which, by a nervous strain of eloquence, the preacher must have succeeded in impressing on the minds of his hearers. The importance of energy, unanimity, and zeal, is so forcibly stated, and the consequences which must result from our falling a prey to the enemy are so pathetically described, that the reader cannot resist the conviction of its being better to die fighting for our country than to survive its independence.

Art. 39. *God and our Country:*—Preached at the Parish Church of Gegglesewich, in Craven, Aug. 14; also at Trinity Church, Leeds, Aug. 21, 1803. By Rowland Ingram, B. D. 8vo. 4d. Hatchard.

From a consideration of the existence and administration of God, Mr. Ingram advances to a discussion of the duties of rational and moral agents under that administration. His view of the subject, though concise, is judicious: he enumerates our national blessings as so many charges which we are to defend and improve; and he urges us, with grateful and pious sentiments to the Giver of all public as well as private mercies, to shew ourselves worthy of British privileges by such an heroic conduct in times of national peril as, with God's blessing, must appal and vanquish our adversaries.

Art. 40. *The Aspect of the Times examined, and the Duties of Christians described:*—Preached at Stepney-Meeting, Aug. 14, 1803. By George Ford. 8vo. 1s. Williams.

Mr. Ford's glance at the State of the Times embraces moral more than political considerations. Professing to contemplate events through the medium of *sanctified* reason, their tendency either to retard or to advance the Gospel is examined, and the present condition

of

of the Church, of the world, and of our own country, is urged as constituting so many arguments for repentance and Christian reformation of manners.

Art. 41. *Courage and Union in a Time of National Danger:*—Preached Oct. 9, 1803, at the Unitarian Chapel, Essex-Street. By the Rev. Jeremiah Joyce. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

There is no divine, however orthodox, nor any subject, however loyal, who surpasses Mr. Joyce in the ardour of patriotism on the present awful occasion. Like a second Nehemiah, (text Neh. vi. 11.) he evinces a zeal and a magnanimity which prove him to be a true lover of his country. Bonaparte has accomplished one object which he never intended, and which we never expected; he has made us completely unanimous; and he has proved moreover that the disaffection, of which alarmists talked so loudly, was more a phantom than a reality. Should the present struggle be crowned with success, which we flatter ourselves it will, we hope that the establishment of a fact so important will not be overlooked by the Government.

Art. 42. *Obedience to Government, Reverence to the Constitution, and Resistance to Bonaparte:*—Preached at Bury St. Edmunds, before the Right Hon. Lord Chief Baron Macdonald and the Hon. Mr. Baron Hotham, at the Assizes held there July 29, 1803. By the Rev. Charles Edward Stewart, A M., Chaplain to the Sheriff. Published at the Request of the Sheriff and the Grand Jury. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff.

After having illustrated the necessity of civil government for the security of social enjoyment, and of religion for that of civil government, Mr. Stewart pronounces an eulogium on the religion and constitution of our country as the best under heaven; and he concludes with an exhortation to defend both against the threatening enemy.

Art. 43. Preached at the Archidiaconal Visitations of the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Northumberland, held May 17th, 18th, 19th, and 20th, 1803; and published at their Request. By Robert Thorp, D. D., Archdeacon of Northumberland. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

This discourse, from 1 Tim. iv. 16., is divided into two parts, the first of which respects the conduct, and the second the preaching of the clergy. The life of a clergyman, Dr. Thorp observes, should be a life of piety, seriousness, reflection, and study, to which he is allowed occasionally to add innocent amusement and recreation. The doctrine to which the clergy are required *to take heed* is 'the form of sound words delivered in the scriptures, and committed to the guardianship of the church, in the articles, liturgy, and homilies.'

Dr. T. concludes with inculcating the exercise of *meekness of wisdom*, benevolence, and forbearance, towards all who differ in opinion from the Establishment.

Art. 44. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Nicholas in Deptford the 6th of June 1803, before the Hon. Corporation of Trinity Brethren. By the Rev. Gerrard Andrews, A. M. Rector of St. James's Westminster, and of Mickleham in Surrey. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

To

To n enumeration of our national blessings as exempted from earthquakes, pestilence, famine, and the horrors of war, Mr. Andrews subjoins a view of those benefits which we derive from navigation, the "good estate, wholesome government, maintenance, and increase" of which is the object of the Corporation of the Trinity Brethren; who are complimented by the preacher for their loyalty, skill, and intrepidity.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'WHILE the sagacious John Wagstaffe of Norwich*, a member of the society 'of friends,' (by inheritance!) has discovered in *Fragments*, (Rev. Sept. p. 33.) that their author is *not* a member, ye are perhaps hardly chargeable with any want of acumen, in the fact escaping your notice.

'The fact is that while there are many members of the associations of the 'friends' who set at nought all the peculiarities of Quakers, and are not at all regarded as Quakers by Society at large, till they declare themselves such, exciting the remark 'I should not have known it if he had not told me;' there are Quakers who are, every where, recognised as such, except in the associations.

'Verily, the remark applies to many zealous Non-associated Quakers which I heard a member of the society of 'friends' apply to an individual who had sought to be associated.—'Uncle! I have been thinking that the reason why John is not received by our friends is this—they are afraid of him.—Like as when Big Sam [late porter at Carlton House] first went to enlist, they would not take him. What! said the officers; if we let him into the ranks, he will spoil the appearance of our grenadiers, who will all look diminutive beside him.—John is too much the Quaker for our Society.'—In Ireland, particularly, there are many who are, by far, too much Quakers for the Yearly Meeting of London.

'Salisbury Square, 1, xj, 1803.' J. W.

We must decline any farther communication on this subject.

In acknowlegement of the very polite letter from the author of "Three Discourses to the Library Society at Chichester," (see Rev. for last month,) we have to observe that we endeavoured to state correctly the general *impression* made by his essay on taste; and that to have reported his reasons for his opinion, together with ours for differing from him, would have led us farther than we were able to accompany him. It is also a subject on which it is much easier to differ than to decide, for where is the standard of taste, except the self-erected standard in every man's mind?—With regard to the quotation from Lucretius, the author says that the passage from Thomson which we suggested 'would not have suited his purpose on that occasion, which was merely to adduce forms of poetical expression for a sentence in prose of *general import*, to which the lines from Thomson are too *particular* to be applicable.' It still appears to us, however, that so beautiful an amplification, as that which these lines furnish, might with propriety have been introduced.

☞ In the last Rev. p. 143. l. 9. for 'cautious,' r. *cautions*. P. 158. l. 28. after 'and,' insert *with*. P. 215. l. 25. after 'gratitude,' dele *of*.

* See CORRESPONDENCE in M. R. for October.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1803.

ART. I. *An Essay on the Principle of Population*, or a View of its past and present Effects on Human Happiness; with an Enquiry into our Prospects respecting the future Removal or Mitigation of the Evils which it occasions. A new Edition, very much enlarged. By T. R. Malthus, A. M., Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 4to. pp. 610. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

THE fearless spirit of investigation, the inflexible adherence to truth, the sober and liberal turn of mind, and the able manner of discussing nice and intricate points, which were so conspicuous in the *Essay on the Principle of Population*, induced us to speak of it, on its first appearance, in the language of warm commendation *; and they equally characterize this production of Mr. Malthus, who now avows himself as its author, in its more finished and systematic form. The principles and views on which it proceeds remain unchanged: but so material are the alterations in its plan and structure, that they intitle it to be considered as a distinct work; and in the shape in which it now presents itself, it stands very much disentangled from the visionary philosophy which it was its primary object to expose: for if at first it only professed to be a refutation of a false hypothesis, it now seeks the same end by exhibiting itself in the more dignified garb of a new and opposite system. As the subject which it embraces is, in many of its parts, of high importance, and of not less novelty, we feel ourselves required to bestow on it more than ordinary attention.

It was an observation of Dr. Franklin, that, on any new discovery being published, the jealousy of philosophers led them first to question its reality; and then, when that point could no longer be disputed, to endeavour to find a prior author, to whom it might be ascribed. Mr. Malthus must not be surprized if his claims, in the same way, should experience the common fate. If, however, the proposition that population

* See Rev. Vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 1.

must be kept down to the level of subsistence was too obvious to be matter of discovery at this time of day, yet to treat of it professedly, and to follow it to all its consequences,—consequences truly momentous, and never before contemplated,—was a novel course, which it was the good fortune of Mr. Malthus first to tread. For him it was reserved to determine the proportion between the increase of population and that of food, and to ascertain the various modes by which, in different countries and ages, the balance between both has been maintained; to find in it a medium, which exhibits under new aspects the laws and manners of nations; and to establish a test by which to try institutions of the most weighty public concern. He was destined to introduce, by these systems, the light of day into many parts of political economy, and of political arithmetic; to render it a ground furnishing new questions of vast importance to society, to civil government, and to domestic happiness; to make it the means of causing the history of every country, ancient and modern, to be perused with new interest; and by its application, to shew the fallacy of captivating theories, and to correct important errors in legislation and the administration of government:—errors sanctioned by such high names as those of Montesquieu, Hume, Smith, Price, and Robertson.

Perceiving that equality between the population of a country, and the means of subsistence furnished by its territory, is a law of nature, Mr. M. observes that it follows that the sole method of increasing the former is to render the latter more plentiful. He shews also that in regions the most unfavourable, in climates the most ungenial, and among tribes the most rude, the one will press on the limits of the other; that population requires no incitement beyond adequate subsistence; that to attempt to increase it in any other way is not only ineffectual, but highly pernicious; and that, the quantum of the means of subsistence remaining the same, to multiply marriages, and to render births more numerous, would be to accumulate misery, to increase mortality, and to subject the miserable race to the fatal inroads of disease and famine. He therefore cannot regard celibacy, in a certain degree, as a political evil, nor hold that late and less frequent marriages are injurious to the well-being of society; and consequently he cannot deem that policy, which has been known to favour the one and the other, liable to unqualified censure.

We should not wonder if a system, which originated, we are convinced, in an upright and enlightened mind, and which is now submitted to the public with the best intentions and purest views, should call forth clamour, and subject its author to controversy. The censorious may say, and the superficial may

may be induced to believe, that it exhibits qualities resembling those which have cast odium on the hypotheses of Hobbes and Mandeville; that it has a direct tendency to deaden our choicest sympathies, to extinguish our most refined sentiments, and to damp our most pleasurable aspirations; that it furnishes apologies for the most inhuman practices, and, by implication, countenances institutions hitherto deemed not less impolitic than monstrous; and that it lessens our sorrow on the view of those calamities which sweep away the species, and our horror at usages which are destructive of human life. It should, however, be the object of every honest and considerate inquirer, to discover whether this theory is founded in truth; to ascertain what are the practical hints, and the useful lessons which it furnishes; and to set himself on his guard against the ill effects to which its abuse, or misconceptions with regard to it, may give rise.

The author thus states the propositions on which he builds his system:

'1. Population is necessarily limited by the means of subsistence.

'2. Population invariably increases, where the means of subsistence increase, unless prevented by some very powerful and obvious checks.

'3. These checks, and the checks which repress the superior power of population, and keep its effects on a level with the means of subsistence, are all resolvable into moral restraint, vice, and misery.

'The first of these propositions scarcely needs illustration. The second and third will be sufficiently established by a review of the past and present state of society.'

He afterward denominates moral restraint, the *preventive* check on population; and vice and misery, the *positive*. The review of these points occupies the greater half of the volume, and includes the cases of the savage nations, of those who at present inhabit Asia and Africa, of the antient Greeks and Romans, and of several of the states of modern Europe. Mr. M. shews that the difference between the power of population in man, and the power of the earth in producing sustenance, is the difference between a geometrical and an arithmetical series; as it is found that each generation of man, when not under the influence of any check on population, doubles its own numbers, while the produce of the earth, under the highest degree of cultivation in any determinate period, only increases by the repeated addition of a fixed quantity. The excess of this power of population creates the preventive check to its progress, namely, moral restraint; or calls forth the operation of the positive, viz. vice and misery. In New Holland, the singularly brutal treatment of the women, the impossibility of rearing many children, the profligacy of manners, wars, secret murders,

highly fatal epidemics, and the recurrence of famine, keep down the population; which is, however, so much on a level with the miserable food to which these ill-fated beings are habituated, that when any event occasions a deficiency of the usual quantity, scarcity and distress ensue.

It is a very just remark of the author, with regard to Savages, 'that, from their extreme ignorance, the dirt of their persons, and the closeness and filth of their cabins, they lose the advantage which usually attends a thinly peopled country, that of being more exempt from pestilential diseases than those which are fully inhabited;' and equally well founded is that which is supported in the following passage:

'It is not, therefore, as Lord Kaimes imagines, that the American tribes have never increased sufficiently to render the pastoral or agricultural state necessary to them; but, from some cause or other, they have not adopted in any great degree these more plentiful modes of procuring subsistence, and therefore cannot have increased so as to become populous. If hunger alone could have prompted the savage tribes of America to such a change in their habits, I do not conceive that there would have been a single nation of hunters and fishers remaining; but it is evident, that some fortunate train of circumstances, in addition to this stimulus, is necessary for this purpose; and it is undoubtedly probable, that these arts of obtaining food will be first invented and improved in those spots that are best suited to them, and where the natural fertility of the situation, by allowing a greater number of people to subsist together, would give the fairest chance to the inventive powers of the human mind.'

Foreseeing an objection which may be raised to his theory, Mr. Malthus observes:

'The very extraordinary depopulation that has taken place among the American Indians, may appear to some to contradict the theory which is intended to be established; but it will be found that the causes of this rapid diminution may all be resolved into the three great checks to population that have been stated; and it is not asserted, that these checks, operating from particular circumstances with unusual force, may not in some instances be more powerful even than the principle of increase.

'The insatiable fondness of the Indians for spirituous liquors, which, according to Charlevoix, is a rage that passes all expression, by producing among them perpetual quarrels and contests, which often terminate fatally, by exposing them to a new train of disorders which their mode of life unfits them to contend with, and, by deadening and destroying the generative faculty in its very source, may alone be considered as a vice adequate to produce the present depopulation. In addition to this, it should be observed, that almost every where the connexion of the Indians with Europeans, has tended to break their spirit, to weaken or to give a wrong direction to their industry, and in consequence to diminish the sources of subsistence. In St. Domingo,

mingo, the Indians neglected purposely to cultivate their lands in order to starve out their cruel oppressors. In Peru and Chili, the forced industry of the natives was fatally directed to the digging into the bowels of the earth, instead of cultivating its surface; and among the northern nations, the extreme desire to purchase European spirits, directed the industry of the greatest part of them, almost exclusively, to the procuring of peltry for the purpose of this exchange, which would prevent their attention to the more fruitful sources of subsistence, and at the same time tend rapidly to destroy the produce of the chace. The number of wild animals, in all the known parts of America, is probably even more diminished than the number of people. The attention to agriculture has every where slackened, rather than increased, as might at first have been expected, from European connexion. In no part of America, either North or South, do we hear of any of the Indian nations living in great plenty, in consequence of their diminished numbers. It may not, therefore, be very far from the truth to say, that even now, in spite of all the powerful causes of destruction that have been mentioned, the average population of the American nations is, with few exceptions, on a level with the average quantity of food, which in the present state of their industry they can obtain.'

The chief object of the work may be distinctly understood from this passage:

'The Abbé Raynal, speaking of the ancient state of the British isles, and of islanders in general, says of them: "It is among these people that we trace the origin of that multitude of singular institutions that retard the progress of population. Anthropophagy, the castration of males, the infibulation of females, late marriages, the consecration of virginity, the approbation of celibacy, the punishments exercised against girls who become mothers at too early an age," &c. These customs, caused by a superabundance of population in islands, have been carried, he says, to the continents, where philosophers of our days are still employed to investigate the reason of them. The Abbé does not seem to be aware, that a savage tribe in America, surrounded by enemies, or a civilized and populous nation, hemmed in by others in the same state, is in many respects in a similar situation. Though the barriers to a further increase of population be not so well defined, and so open to common observation on continents, as on islands, yet they still present obstacles that are nearly as insurmountable; and the emigrant, impatient of the distresses which he felt in his own country, is by no means secure of finding relief in another. There is probably no island yet known, the produce of which could not be further increased. This is all that can be said of the whole earth. Both are peopled up to their actual produce. And the whole earth is in this respect like an island. But as the bounds to the number of people on islands, particularly when they are of small extent, are so narrow, and so distinctly marked, that every person must see and acknowledge them; and inquiry into the checks to population on those of which we have the most authentic accounts may perhaps tend considerably to illustrate the present subject. The question that is asked in captain Cook's first voyage, with respect to the thinly

scattered savages of New Holland, " By what means the inhabitants of this country are reduced to such a number as it can subsist?" may be asked with equal propriety of the most populous islands in the South Sea, or of the best peopled countries in Europe and Asia. The question, applied generally, appears to me to be highly curious, and to lead to the elucidation of some of the most obscure, yet important points, in the history of human society. I cannot so clearly and concisely describe the precise aim of the first part of the present work, as by saying, that it is an endeavour to answer this question so applied.'

In the South Sea islands, the Eareeoie societies among the higher classes, (noticed by Captain Cook,) the promiscuous intercourse among the lower, infanticide, and war, form the principal restraints on population.

Comparing the state of the inferior classes among civilized nations, with that of the savages who live by hunting or fishing, Mr. M. says that, in regard to bodily labour, their lot may be much the same, but that their privations and sufferings will admit of no comparison.

'Nothing appears to me to place this in so striking a point of view, as the whole tenor of education among the ruder tribes of savages in America. Every thing that can contribute to teach the most unmoved patience under the severest pains and misfortunes, every thing that tends to harden the heart, and narrow all the sources of sympathy, is most sedulously inculcated in the savage. The civilized man, on the contrary, though he may be advised to bear evil with patience when it comes, is not instructed to be always expecting it. Other virtues are to be called into action besides fortitude. He is taught to feel for his neighbour, or even his enemy in distress; to encourage and expand his social affections; and in general, to enlarge the sphere of pleasurable emotions. The obvious inference from these two different modes of education is, that the civilized man hopes to enjoy, the savage expects only to suffer.

'The preposterous system of Spartan discipline, and that unnatural absorption of every private feeling in concern for the public, which has sometimes been so absurdly admired, could never have existed but among a people, exposed to perpetual hardships and privations from incessant war, and in a state under the constant fear of dreadful reverses of fortune. Instead of considering these phenomena as indicating any peculiar tendency to fortitude and patriotism in the disposition of the Spartans, I should merely consider them as a strong indication of the miserable and almost savage state of Sparta, and of Greece in general at that time. Like the commodities in a market, those virtues will be produced in the greatest quantity for which there is the greatest demand; and where patience, under pain and privations, and extravagant patriotic sacrifices, are the most called for, it is a melancholy indication of the misery of the people, and the insecurity of the state.'

Montesquieu seems not a little satisfied with himself, when he states his determination of the question respecting the origin of

of that excessive population, which supplied the various hordes that at different periods over-ran the Roman empire. This Colossal power, he says, had occasioned a pressure of population towards what he calls the limits of the universe, when the force impelling in this direction grew weak, and at length wholly ceased; and the inundations in the contrary direction followed in course. Mr. Malthus treats this idea as a conceit unworthy of its distinguished author; and he finds the true answer in that power, which population possesses, of doubling itself in the course of each generation, when allowed full scope: which scope it must be conceived to have had among the northern nations, from the inimitable sketch of their manners drawn by Tacitus.

Among the Tartars, and other modern pastoral nations, Mr. Malthus thinks, 'the principal checks which keep the population down to the level of the means of subsistence, are, restraint, from inability to obtain a wife, vicious customs with respect to women, epidemics, wars, famine, and the diseases arising from extreme poverty. The three first checks and the last appear to have operated with much less force among the shepherds of the north of Europe.'

The causes of depopulation in Turkey are ascribed to scantiness of subsistence, occasioned by the enormous vices of the government.

The checks to population in Persia 'seem to be nearly similar to these in the Turkish dominions. The superior destruction of the plague in Turkey, is, perhaps, nearly balanced by the greater frequency of internal commotions in Persia.'

Epidemics and frequent famines produce the same effect in Hindostan; and in Tibet, the regulations of the ecclesiastics, and the prevailing manners of the laity, combine to repress all increase of population.

Mr. M. discards the fanciful hypothesis by which Montesquieu accounts for the crowded population of China; the principal cause of which he thinks to be the habit prevalent among the lower classes of contenting themselves with spare food: but frequent epidemics, famines, and the practice of exposing children, contribute to impose some restraint on its increase. The same causes operate in Japan, with the exception of infanticide: the absence of which is counterbalanced by the wars and commotions by which the latter country is almost constantly distracted.

With regard to ancient Greece,

'The frequent colonizations which issued out of that country, joined to the smallness of the states, which brought the subject immediately home to every thinking person, could not fail to point out to

the legislators and philosophers of these times, the strong tendency of population to increase beyond the means of subsistence; and they did not, like the statesmen and projectors of modern days, overlook the consideration of a question which so deeply affects the happiness and tranquillity of society. However we may justly execrate the barbarous expedients which they adopted to remove the difficulty, we cannot but give them some credit for their penetration in seeing it; and in being fully aware, that, if not considered and obviated, it would be sufficient of itself to destroy their best planned schemes of republican equality and happiness.'—

'The legislator of Crete, as well as Solon, Pheidon, Plato, and Aristotle, saw the necessity of checking population in order to prevent general poverty; and, as we must suppose that the opinions of such men, and the laws founded upon them, would have considerable influence, it is probable, that the preventive check to increase, from late marriages and other causes, operated to a considerable degree among the free citizens of Greece.

'For the positive checks to population, we need not look beyond the wars in which these small states were almost continually engaged, though we have an account of one wasting plague at least, in Athens; and Plato supposes the case of his republic being greatly reduced by disease. Their wars were not only almost constant, but extremely bloody. In a small army, the whole of which would probably be engaged in close fight, a much greater number in proportion would be slain, than in the large modern armies, a considerable part of which often remains untouched; and as all the free citizens of these republicks were generally employed as soldiers in every war, losses would be felt very severely, and would not appear to be very easily repaired.'

Among the chief causes which kept the population in antient Rome on a level with the means of subsistence, may be enumerated its wars, the inactivity and poverty of the lower citizens, the employment of slaves, the prevalence of celibacy, and infanticide.

The results of the preceding researches are thus stated:

'All the checks to population which have been hitherto considered in the course of this review of human society, are clearly resolvable into moral restraint, vice, and misery.

'Of moral restraint, though it might be rash to affirm that it has not had some share in repressing the natural power of population, yet it must be allowed to have operated very feebly indeed, compared to the others. Of the preventive check, considered generally, and without reference to its producing vice, though its effect appears to have been very considerable in the later periods of Roman History, and in some few other countries; yet upon the whole, its operation seems to have been inferior to the positive checks. A large portion of the procreative power appears to have been called into action, the redundancy from which was checked by violent causes. Among these, war is the most prominent and striking feature; and after this, may be ranked

ranked famines and violent diseases. In most of the countries considered, the population seems to have been seldom measured accurately according to the average and permanent means of subsistence, but generally to have vibrated between the two extremes, and consequently the oscillations between want and plenty are strongly marked, as we should naturally expect among less civilized nations.'

Proceeding to investigate the restraints which depress the population in several of the states of modern Europe, Mr. Malthus mentions Norway as one which furnishes a remarkable instance of the prevalence of the preventive check. The annual deaths in that country are as 1 to 48, and the marriages as 1 to 130.

'The peculiar state of Norway throws very strong obstacles in the way of early marriages. There are no large manufacturing towns to take off the overflowing population of the country; and as each village naturally furnishes from itself a supply of hands more than equal to the demand, a change of place in search of work seldom promises any success. Unless, therefore, an opportunity of foreign emigration offer, the Norwegian peasant generally remains in the village in which he was born; and as the vacancies in houses and employments must occur very slowly, owing to the small mortality that takes place, he will often see himself compelled to wait a considerable time, before he can attain a situation which will enable him to rear a family.

'The Norway farms have in general a certain number of married labourers employed upon them, in proportion to their size, who are called house-men. They receive from the farmer a house and a quantity of land nearly sufficient to maintain a family; in return for which, they are under the obligation of working for him at a low and fixed price whenever they are called upon. Except in the immediate neighbourhood of the towns, and on the sea coast, the vacancy of a place of this kind is the only prospect which presents itself of providing for a family. From the small number of people, and the little variety of employment, the subject is brought distinctly within the view of each individual; and he must feel the absolute necessity of repressing his inclinations to marriage, till some such vacancy offer.'

In the interior of the country, where the preventive check is little obstructed in its operation, the inhabitants live in ease and abundance; while on the coast, where its influence is less, the people are more numerous, and proportionably poor and miserable. The court of Denmark has lately introduced regulations to favour the increase of population, the ill effects of which are dreaded by the sensible Norwegians.

'Norway (says the author,) is, I believe, almost the only country in Europe where a traveller will hear any apprehensions expressed of a redundant population, and where the danger to the happiness of the lower classes of people, from this cause, is, in some degree, seen and understood. This obviously arises from the smallness of the po-

population altogether, and the consequent narrowness of the subject. If our attention were confined to one parish, and there were no power of emigrating from it, the most careless observer could not fail to remark that if all married at twenty, it would be perfectly impossible for the farmers, however carefully they might improve their land, to find employment and food for those that would grow up; but, when a great number of these parishes are added together in a populous kingdom, the largeness of the subject, and the power of moving from place to place, obscure and confuse our view. We lose sight of a truth which before appeared completely obvious; and, in a most unaccountable manner, attribute to the aggregate quantity of land a power of supporting people beyond comparison greater than the sum of all its parts.'—

'Sweden is, in many respects, in a state similar to that of Norway. A very large proportion of its population is, in the same manner, employed in agriculture; and in most parts of the country the married labourers who work for the farmers, like the housemen of Norway, have a certain portion of land for their principal maintenance, while the young men and women that are unmarried, live as servants in the farmers' families. This state of things, however, is not so complete and general, as in Norway; and from this cause, added to the greater extent and population of the country, the superior size of the towns, and the greater variety of employment, it has not occasioned, in the same degree, the prevalence of the preventive check to population, and consequently the positive check has operated with more force, or the mortality has been greater.'

The proportion of the deaths to the population in this country is that of 1 to 34¼. The healthiness of Sweden and Norway is considered as much the same; and hence, the author observes, 'it is difficult entirely to account for the mortality of Sweden, without supposing that the habits of the people, and the continual cry of the goverment for an increase of subjects, tend to press the population too hard against the limits of subsistence, and, consequently, to produce diseases which are the necessary effect of poverty and bad nourishment; and this, from observation, appears to be really the case.'—The influence of the preventive check, though considerable in Sweden, is not so great as it is in Norway; which occasions the positive checks to operate more in the former country.

A bad rural economy obstructs population in Russia, where it is not the interest of the boor to improve his portion of land, since, if it should produce more than is sufficient to support his family, it is curtailed, while the capitation tax charged on the remainder is the same with that which was paid for the whole. The two *Maisons des Enfans trouvés*, the one situated in Petersburgh, the other in Moscow, form another check on population: alluding to these, the author says:

'The

'The surprising mortality which takes place at these two foundling hospitals of Petersburgh and Moscow, which are managed in the best possible manner, as all who have seen them, with one consent, assert, appears to me incontrovertibly to prove, that the nature of these institutions is not calculated to answer the immediate end that they have in view, which I conceive to be, the preservation of a certain number of citizens to the state, which might otherwise, perhaps, perish from poverty or false shame. It is not to be doubted, that if the children received into these hospitals had been left to the management of their parents, taking the chance of all the difficulties in which they might be involved, a much greater proportion of them would have reached the age of manhood, and have become useful members of the state.

'When we look a little deeper into this subject, it will appear, that these institutions not only fail in their immediate object, but by encouraging, in the most marked manner, habits of licentiousness, discourage marriage, and thus weaken the main spring of population. All the well-informed men with whom I conversed on this subject at Petersburgh, agreed invariably, that the institution had produced this effect in a surprising degree. To have a child, was considered as one of the most trifling faults which a girl could commit. An English merchant at Petersburgh told me, that a Russian girl living in his family, under a mistress, who was considered as very strict, had sent six children to the foundling hospital without the loss of her place.

'It should be observed, however, that generally speaking, six children are not common in this kind of intercourse. Where habits of licentiousness prevail, the births are never in the same proportion to the number of people, as in the married state; and therefore the discouragement to marriage, arising from this licentiousness, and the diminished number of births which is the consequence of it, will much more than counterbalance any encouragement to marriage, from the prospect held out to parents of disposing of the children which they cannot support.

'Considering the extraordinary mortality which occurs in these institutions, and the habits of licentiousness which they have an evident tendency to create, it may be said, perhaps, with truth, that if a person wished to check population, and were not solicitous about the means, he could not propose a more effectual measure, than the establishment of a sufficient number of foundling hospitals, unlimited in their reception of children. And with regard to the moral feelings of a nation, it is difficult to conceive that they must not be very sensibly impaired by encouraging mothers to desert their offspring, and endeavouring to teach them, that their love for their new-born infants is a prejudice, which it is the interest of their country to eradicate. An occasional child-murder, from false shame, is saved at a very high price, if it can only be done by the sacrifice of some of the best and most useful feelings of the human heart in a great part of the nation.'—

'The true encouragement to marriage is, the high price of labour, and an increase of employments, which require to be supplied with proper hands; but if the principal part of these employments, apprenticeships,

ships, &c be filled up by foundlings, the demand for labour among the legitimate part of the society must be proportionally diminished, the difficulty of supporting a family be increased, and the best encouragement to marriage removed.'

Notwithstanding the obstacles already mentioned, population advances rapidly in Russia, the births being to the deaths as 2¼ to 1, the deaths to the population as 1 to 52, and the marriages as 1 to 92.

In treating of the checks to population in Holland, the author says:

'A very curious and striking contrast to the Dutch villages, tending to illustrate the present subject, will be recollected in what was said respecting the state of Norway. In Norway, the mortality is 1 in 48, and the marriages 1 in 130. In the Dutch villages, the mortality 1 in 23, and the marriages 1 in 64. The difference both in the marriages and deaths is above double. They maintain their relative proportions in a very exact manner, and shew how much the deaths and marriages mutually depend upon each other, and that, except where some sudden start in the agriculture of a country enlarges the means of subsistence, an increase of marriages will only produce an increase of mortality, and *vice versa*.'

In general, after a great mortality, the number of marriages increases: but it may happen that

'The sudden improvement of the condition of the survivors might give them more of a decent and proper pride; and the consequence would be, that the proportional number of marriages might remain nearly the same, but they would all rear more of their children, and the additional population that was wanted, would be supplied by a diminished mortality, instead of an increased number of births.

'In the same manner, if the population of any country had been long stationary, and would not easily admit of an increase, it is possible that a change in the habits of the people, from improved education, or any other cause, might diminish the proportional number of marriages; but as fewer children would be lost in infancy, from the diseases consequent on poverty, the diminution in the number of marriages would be balanced by the diminished mortality, and the population would be kept up to its proper level by a smaller number of births.

'Such changes, therefore, in the habits of a people should evidently be taken into consideration.

'The most general rule that can be laid down on this subject is, perhaps, that any *direct* encouragements to marriage must be accompanied by an increased mortality. The natural tendency to marriage is, in every country, so great, that, without any encouragements whatever, a proper place for a marriage will always be filled up. Such encouragements, therefore, must be either perfectly futile, or produce a marriage where there is not a proper place for one, and the consequence must necessarily be, increased poverty and mortality. Montesquieu, in his Lettres Persanes, says, that in the past wars of France, the fear of being inrolled in the militia, tempted a great

number

number of young men to marry, without the proper means of supporting a family, and the effect was, the birth of a crowd of children, "que l'on cherche encore en France, et que la misère, la famine, et les maladies en ont fait disparoitre."

Respecting the effects of *towns* on population, the opinion of Mr. Malthus is thus given:

'There is one leading circumstance affecting the mortality of countries, which may be considered as very general, and which is, at the same time, completely open to observation. This is the number of towns in any state, which has been before alluded to, and the proportion of town to country inhabitants. The unfavourable effects of close habitations and sedentary employments on the health are universal; and therefore, on the number of people living in this manner, compared with the number employed in agriculture, will much depend the general mortality of the state. Upon this principle it has been calculated, that when the proportion of the people in the towns, to those in the country, is as 1 to 3, then the mortality is about 1 in 36, which rises to 1 in 35, or 1 in 33, when the proportion of townsmen to villagers is 2 to 5, or 3 to 7; and falls below 1 in 36, when this proportion is 2 to 7, or 1 to 4. On these grounds the mortality in Prussia is 1 in 38; in Pomerania, 1 in 37½; in the Neumark, 1 in 37; in the Churmark, 1 in 35; according to the lists for 1756.'

It has been shewn by a German publicist,

'That the states of Europe may be divided into three classes, to which a different measure of mortality ought to be applied. In the richest and most populous states, where the inhabitants of towns are to the inhabitants of the country, in so high a proportion as 1 to 3, the mortality may be taken as 1 in 30. In those countries which are in a middle state, with regard to population and cultivation, the mortality may be considered as 1 in 32: And in the thinly-peopled northern states, Susmilch's proportion of 1 in 36 may be applied.

'These proportions seem to make the general mortality rather too great, even after allowing epidemick years to have their full effect in the calculations.'

In Swisserland, the author finds the chief prevalence of the preventive check: half the adults in the Pays de Vaud live single, and a still greater proportion in Berne: in which canton, the peasants are not permitted to marry till they are furnished with the arms and accoutrements of the militia. This rule, it is justly observed, induces an economical habit; which, when formed, will dispose the individual to provide something more than what will barely entitle him to enter into the state of wedlock.

The positive checks which, in France and England, obstruct the population, are so well known that they need not be detailed. By comparing the calculations of Messrs. Peuchet and Necker, Mr. M. finds that nearly one third of those who annually reach the age of puberty remain single, and that nearly a million

million and a half of males between the ages of eighteen and fifty are unmarried.

The following causes are stated as diminishing the proportion of marriages in England. In this, as in all countries of great refinement and luxury, numbers of the wealthy give the preference to a life of celibacy. Many of those who belong to the labouring class are aware that their earnings are too scanty to support a family. The domestics of the great are sensible of the sacrifices to which matrimony would oblige them to submit. The youth engaged in agriculture, or in trade, cannot marry till a farm or some business can be procured. The number of those also is great, who, while single, are able to make a genteel appearance, but who, if they married, would be forced to mix with persons of inferior condition. It is calculated that, in this kingdom, not above half the prolific power of nature is called into action; and that each marriage yields, on an average, upwards of five births.

Availing himself of the various facts which the industry of German writers has collected, the author undertakes to refute many received notions on the subject of political economy, and to point out the fallacy and insufficiency of some very important rules of political arithmetic, hitherto universally received. He thinks that there is one very serious mistake, into which all the writers without exception, who have exercised themselves in calculations of this sort, have fallen; viz. that of regarding the proportion of annual births to annual marriages, as expressing the average number of births produced by each marriage in the course of its duration; whereas that proportion is not in any degree affected by such produce, but is determined by the number of the born who live to be married, for it only expresses what is the number of births which supplies a pair for marriage. It furnishes no clue whatever to ascertain the average fruitfulness of marriages; and it is impossible hence to determine whether a marriage yields two, four, or a hundred births, because, in each case, the proportion of annual births to annual marriages may be the same. This proportion, we are told, expresses the average number of births produced by each marriage, solely in the case of population being completely stationary; if it in any degree fluctuates, it is not worthy of reliance for that purpose. It is this false assumption, that gave rise to all the fears respecting depopulation; which, had the rule been a just one, would have been well grounded: since, on an average taken throughout Europe, the births are to the marriages not so high as four to one, while more than half of the born die before they marry. The author, however, is enabled to shew that, where the births have been to the marriages

riages annually below 4 to 1, population has advanced rapidly, while its progress has been slow where this proportion has been so high as $4\frac{1}{16}$ to 1. Mr. Malthus states that the average number of births produced by each marriage, in the course of its duration, depends on the proportion of births to deaths, and on that of births to marriages; and he is of opinion that, taking the average of Europe, more than half of the born live to the age of puberty, and that each marriage yields more than five children.

In order to illustrate his doctrine as to the superior power of population, he tells us that Prussia and Lithuania, in the year following the great plague which raged in those countries in 1709 and 10, the marriages were nearly double the average of those of the six years preceding that calamity; being to the population as 1 to 26, while that of the births was as 1 to 10, and that of the births to the deaths as $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 1: by which state of things, if it had continued, the population must have doubled in less than ten years. The births were at this time to the marriages as $2\frac{7}{8}$ to 1: but when, from the time of the plague, seven or eight years had elapsed, and the effect of that visitation in diminishing the marriages had been felt, the births were to the marriages as 5 to 1: whence, agreeably to the common notion, was inferred the greater fruitfulness of the marriages, but the proportion of the births to the deaths did not support the conclusion.

Upwards of fifty years ago, there prevailed in Swisserland an apprehension that the population was in a progressive state of decay; and M. Muret, desirous of investigating the causes of such a fact, first set himself to work to ascertain whether it was the fact. On an examination of the registers during three equal periods of seventy years, ending in 1620, 1690, and 1760, he satisfied himself that the annual number of births had been in a course of diminution. Mr. Malthus, without quarrelling with the facts of this writer, disputes his conclusions. A diminution of births, he observes, is no proof of a declining population; nay, he says, the number of births may decrease, while the population increases; which will be the case if the mortality, in the class below the marriageable age, diminishes faster than the number of births does. He supposes that, in the periods included by M. Muret, towns became less close, and houses more cleanly; that the mode of living improved; that a greater healthiness prevailed; and that a diminished mortality rendered fewer births necessary to keep up the population. He also adds that, during the first and second of the above periods, the frequent recurrence of the plague rendered necessary an extra number of births, in order to repair its

ravages. He shews that, if a district, owing to any cause whatever, becomes more salubrious than it had been, marriages and births must diminish, in order that the population may remain stationary; on the contrary, where the mortality is great, marriages are more frequent, and contracted earlier, whence a greater fecundity arises; and thus it appears that where the proportion of births to the population is great, that is, when the births are comparatively few, we may infer that ease, comfort, and healthiness prevail in a superior degree. To adopt the common mode of regarding numerous births as a favourable symptom, is therefore an evident and a grave error. England, he says, is an instance of the number of births decreasing, while the population has increased.

It appears from the materials collected for the great statistical work, now preparing for publication in France, that the population of the old territory of that country has rather augmented than diminished during the revolution; and Mr. M. is disposed to admit this conclusion, regardless of the authority and reasonings of Sir Francis D'Ivernois. He quotes M. Peuchet as stating, in his *Essai d'une Statistique Générale*, Paris, 1800, that in France 600,000 persons annually arrive at the age of 18, while it is laid down by M. Necker that 440,000 annually contract marriage; which gives a surplus of 80,000 males, who are not necessary to carry on the population. It is also found that there were 1,451,063 of unmarried males, between the ages of 18 and 50. Suppose, then, that of the unmarried males 600,000 were taken to form armies; and that, in order to preserve entire this establishment, 150,000 recruits were annually necessary; the number of males every year attaining the age of puberty, and the stock of the unmarried above mentioned, would furnish this supply. This process might continue for ten years, and allow the average number of marriages of former years to be increased by 10,000. Each year would, indeed, diminish the above class of unmarried by several passing the age of 50: but then, though they might cease to be fit for war, they would still be able to contribute to the population; and, in this respect, would supply the places of younger persons who had been taken to the armies.—The war, he thinks, would rather favour than be prejudicial to population in the interiour.

It is generally admitted that agriculture did not decline in France during the late war; and that, on the contrary, the dominion of the plough was extended, land was more subdivided, and consequently the gross produce increased: which is all that relates to mere population. The thinness of the towns, and the higher price of labour, would diminish the mortality, where-

violences

violence did not operate; while the great increase of illegitimate children, the temporary effect of the immoral and impolitic law of divorce, and the additional marriages, would occasion the births to increase in the proportion of $\frac{1}{7}$th of the whole. Mr. M. allows that the *Analyse des Procès Verbaux des Conseils Généraux de Département* describes the population and agriculture of France in a manner far less favourable, than is consistent with the facts and calculations on which he has founded his conclusions. It is also an admission of the author, and certainly an important one,

'That though the numerical population of France may not have suffered by the revolution; yet, that if her losses have been in any degree equal to the conjectures on the subject, her military strength cannot be unimpaired. Her population at present must consist of a much greater proportion than usual of women and children; and the body of unmarried persons of a military age, must be diminished in a very striking manner. This, indeed, is known to be the case, from the returns of the Prefects which have already been received.

'It has appeared, that the point at which the drains of men will begin essentially to affect the population of a country, is, when the original body of unmarried persons is exhausted, and the annual demands are greater than the excess of the number of males rising annually to the age of puberty, above the number wanted to complete the usual proportion of annual marriages. France was probably at some distance from this point, at the conclusion of the war; but, in the present state of her population, with an increased proportion of women and children, and a great diminution of males of a military age, she could not make the same gigantic exertions which were made at one period, without trenching on the sources of her population.'

With the view of farther corroborating the doctrine which ascribes so wonderful a spring to population, and which regards the checks to it as principally caused by the necessary limits of subsistence, Mr. M. states that

'The fertile province of Flanders, which has been so often the seat of the most destructive wars, after a respite of a few years, has always appeared as rich and as populous as ever. The undiminished population of France, which has before been noticed, is an instance very strongly in point. The tables of Susmilch afford continual proofs of a very rapid increase, after great mortalities; and the table for Prussia and Lithuania, which I have inserted, is particularly striking in this respect. The effects of the dreadful plague in London, in 1666, were not perceptible 15 or 20 years afterwards. It may even be doubted, whether Turkey and Egypt are, upon an average, much less populous for the plagues which periodically lay them waste. If the number of people which they contain be considerably less now than formerly, it is rather to be attributed to the tyranny and oppression of the governments under which they groan, and the consequent discouragements to agriculture,

than to the losses which they sustain by the plague. The traces of the most destructive famines in China, Indostan, Egypt, and other countries, are by all accounts very soon obliterated; and the most tremendous convulsions of nature, such as volcanic eruptions and earthquakes, if they do not happen so frequently as to drive away the inhabitants, or destroy their spirit of industry, have been found to produce but a trifling effect on the average population of any state.'

The following passages are highly just, and happily elucidate the theory maintained in this work:

'The highest average proportion of births to deaths in England may be considered as about 12 to 10, or 120 to 100. The proportion in France for ten years, ending in 1780, was about 115 to 100. Though these proportions have undoubtedly varied, at different periods, during the last century, yet we have reason to think that they have not varied in any very considerable degree; and it will appear, therefore, that the population of France and England has accommodated itself more nearly to the average produce of each country than many other states. The operation of the preventive check, vicious manners, wars, the silent, though certain, destruction of life in large towns and manufactories, and the close habitations and insufficient food of many of the poor, prevent population from outrunning the means of subsistence; and if I may use an expression, which certainly at first appears strange, supersede the necessity of great and ravaging epidemicks to destroy what is redundant. If a wasting plague were to sweep off two millions in England, and six millions in France, it cannot be doubted, that after the inhabitants had recovered from the dreadful shock, the proportion of births to deaths would rise much above the usual average in either country during the last century*.

'In New Jersey the proportion of births to deaths, on an average of 7 years, ending 1743, was 300 to 100. In France and England, the highest average proportion cannot be reckoned at more than 120 to 100. Great and astonishing as this difference is, we ought not to be so wonder-struck at it, as to attribute it to the miraculous interposition of heaven. The causes of it are not remote, latent, and mysterious, but near us, round about us, and open to the investigation of every inquiring mind. It accords with the most liberal spirit of philosophy to believe, that not a stone can fall, or plant rise, without the immediate agency of divine power. But we know, from experience, that these operations of what we call nature, have been conducted almost invariably according to fixed laws. And since the world began, the causes of population and depopulation have been probably as constant as any of the laws of nature with which we are acquainted.

'The passion between the sexes has appeared in every age to be so nearly the same, that it may always be considered, in alegebraic

---

'* This remark has been, to a certain degree, verified of late in France, by the increase of births which has taken place since the revolution.'

language,

language, as a given quantity. The great law of necessity, which prevents population from increasing in any country beyond the food which it can either produce or acquire, is a law, so open to our view, so obvious and evident to our understandings, that we cannot for a moment doubt it. The different modes which nature takes to repress a redundant population, do not appear indeed to us so certain and regular; but though we cannot always predict the mode, we may with certainty predict the fact. If the proportion of the births to the deaths for a few years, indicate an increase of numbers much beyond the proportional increased or acquired food of the country, we may be perfectly certain, that unless an emigration take place, the deaths will shortly exceed the births, and that the increase that had been observed for a few years, cannot be the real average increase of the population of the country. If there were no other depopulating causes, and if the preventive check did not operate very strongly, every country would, without doubt, be subject to periodical plagues or famines.

'The only true criterion of a real and permanent increase in the population of any country, is the increase of the means of subsistence. But even this criterion is subject to some slight variations, which however are completely open to our observation. In some countries population seems to have been forced; that is, the people have been habituated, by degrees, to live almost upon the smallest possible quantity of food. There must have been periods in such countries when population increased permanently without an increase in the means of subsistence. China, India, and the countries possessed by the Bedoween Arabs, as we have seen in the former part of this work, appear to answer to this description. The average produce of these countries seems to be but barely sufficient to support the lives of the inhabitants, and of course any deficiency from the badness of the seasons must be fatal. Nations in this state must necessarily be subject to famines.

'In America, where the reward of labour is at present so liberal, the lower classes might retrench very considerably in a year of scarcity, without materially distressing themselves. A famine, therefore, seems to be almost impossible. It may be expected, that in the progress of the population of America, the labourers will in time be much less liberally rewarded. The numbers will in this case permanently increase without a proportional increase in the means of subsistence.

'In the different countries of Europe, there must be some variations in the proportion of the number of inhabitants, and the quantity of food consumed, arising from the different habits of living which prevail in each state. The labourers of the South of England are so accustomed to eat fine wheaten bread, that they will suffer themselves to be half-starved, before they will submit to live like the Scotch peasants. They might, perhaps, in time, by the constant operation of the hard law of necessity, be reduced to live, even like the lower classes of the Chinese, and the country would then, with the same quantity of food, support a greater population. But to

effect this, must always be a difficult, and every friend to humanity will hope, an abortive attempt.'—

'Other circumstances being the same, it may be affirmed, that countries are populous according to the quantity of human food which they produce, or can acquire; and happy, according to the liberality with which this food is divided, or the quantity which a day's labour will purchase. Corn countries are more populous than pasture countries; and rice countries more populous than corn countries. But their happiness does not depend either upon their being thinly or fully inhabited, upon their poverty or their riches, their youth or their age; but on the proportion which the population and the food bear to each other. This proportion is generally the most favourable in new colonies, where the knowledge and industry of an old state, operate on the fertile unappropriated land of a new one. In other cases the youth, or the age, of a state is not, in this respect, of great importance. It is probable that the food of Great Britain is divided in more liberal shares to her inhabitants at the present period, than it was, two thousand, three thousand, or four thousand years ago. And it has appeared that the poor and thinly-inhabited tracts of the Scotch Highlands are more distressed by a redundant population, than the most populous parts of Europe.'—

'Famine seems to be the last, the most dreadful resource of nature. The power of population is so superior to the power in the earth to produce subsistence for man, that, unless arrested by the preventive check, premature death must in some shape or other visit the human race. The vices of mankind are active and able ministers of depopulation. They are the precursors in the great army of destruction, and often finish the dreadful work themselves. But should they fail in this war of extermination, sickly seasons, epidemicks, pestilence, and plague, advance in terrifick array, and sweep off their thousands and ten thousands. Should success be still incomplete, gigantick inevitable famine stalks in the rear, and, with one mighty blow, levels the population with the food of the world.

'Must it not then be acknowledged, by an attentive examiner of the histories of mankind, that, in every age, and in every state, in which man has existed, or does now exist,

'The increase of population is necessarily limited by the means of subsistence.

'Population invariably increases when the means of subsistence increase, unless prevented by powerful and obvious checks.

'These checks, and the checks which keep the population down to the level of the means of subsistence, are, moral restraint, vice, and misery.'

Mr. M. concludes this part of the work with these remarks:

'In comparing the state of society which has been considered in this second book with that which formed the subject of the first, I think it appears that in modern Europe the positive checks to population prevail less, and the preventive checks more, than in past times, and in more uncivilized parts of the world.

'War,

'War, the predominant check to the population of savage nations, has certainly abated, even including the late unhappy revolutionary contests: and since the prevalence of a greater degree of personal cleanliness, of better modes of clearing and building towns, and of a more equable distribution of the products of the soil from improving knowledge in political economy, plagues, violent diseases, and famines, have been certainly mitigated, and have become less frequent.

'With regard to the preventive checks to population, though it must be acknowledged, that moral restraint does not at present prevail much among the male part of society; yet I am strongly disposed to believe that it prevails more than in those states which were first considered; and it can scarcely be doubted, that in modern Europe, a much larger proportion of women pass a considerable part of their lives in the exercise of this virtue, than in past times and among uncivilized nations. But however this may be, taking the preventive check in its general acceptation, as implying an infrequency of the marriage union from the fear of a family, without reference to its producing vice, it may be considered, in this light, as the most powerful of the checks, which in modern Europe keep down the population to the level of the means of subsistence.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *A Second Part to the Morsels of Criticism;* containing additional Dissertations and additional Notes; further illustrating the original Work;—and tending to shew the most perfect Consistency of Philosophical Discoveries and of Historical Facts, with the Holy Scriptures. By Edward King, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S. 4to. 1l. 1s. or 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. White.

WHEN an author professes to follow with deep humility the full and firm convictions of his mind, to hesitate in adopting opinions without the fullest inquiry, and to be actuated in communicating them to the public by an impulsive sense of duty, he may reasonably require to be treated with some respect, and may deem all levity of criticism misplaced and indecorous. Such are the declarations of Mr. King; and we must therefore summon up all the gravity of which we are masters, on the present occasion: but, to confess the truth, had these dissertations appeared without a name, and without repeated assurances of the author being completely in earnest, we should have thought that he had been throwing out baits to credulity, and amusing himself with ironical criticisms. Mr. King has, indeed, on a former occasion *, presented us with specimens of his mode of illustrating the Scriptures; and, in the

* See an account of the first part of these *Morsels*, M. R. vol. lxxx. p. 110.

volume before us, he pursues the same course; furnishing us with a number of fancies and conceits, rendered amusing by his learning and science, though not calculated (in our apprehension) to cast any great light on the Scriptures. It is a strange anachronism of criticism, to apply modern philosophical discoveries to Scriptural illustrations; and it is a fruitless attempt to illustrate the O. and N. T., which were intended to teach us the will of God, not the laws of nature, by endeavouring to make the popular phraseology of those books accord with the language of scientific precision. "The *Ends* of the Earth,"—"The *Corners* of the Earth,"—"The Sun coming out of his chamber;"—and many other expressions of antient Scripture, are not in conformity with the Newtonian system; and, since there is not the shadow of evidence that the historian of the Creation had the faintest idea of magnetism, of electricity, of the prismatic colours, and of the different kinds of gasses, how can his language be supposed to be accommodated to these discoveries?

Mr. King pays great deference to the Septuagint version of the O. T. as being that from which our blessed Lord himself and his holy Apostles quoted: but this circumstance is no proof of its philosophical correctness. It deviates in many places, both in its chronology and its expressions, from the Hebrew text, and on some occasions not happily. רָקִיעַ is not well rendered by στερεωμα, nor תֹּהוּ וָבֹהוּ by αοραλος και ακαλυπτος. In the 19th Psalm, for "*in them hath he set a tabernacle for the Sun*," the lxx write, "In the Sun has he set his tabernacle," εν τω ηλιω εθετο το σκηνωμα αυτου. We do not deny the value of this version: but the fact of its having been cited by the writers of the N. T., as the translation then in use among the Helenistic Jews, ought not to supersede our appeal to the Hebrew Scriptures; which, even allowing them to have been in some instances corrupted, still preserve the phraseology of the Jewish prophets and historians.

Writers have indulged themselves in various speculations relative to the history of the Creation, and the state of man in the first age of the world; and we may say of most of them,

> "That learned commentators view
> In *Moses*, more than *Moses* knew."

To this remark, however, Mr. King will not subscribe; for he seems to be of opinion, that all the discoveries attributed to the moderns were in some measure known to this antient sage; and that he never appears ignorant, nor his narrative improbable, excepting in consequence of our not rightly understanding him.

Referring to the observations in the first volume of his Morsels, Mr. K. commences the present with a dissertation on the *Light of the Sun*; in which he labours, by a kind of mathematical reasoning, aided by diagrams, to establish those opinions which we formerly detailed: but we cannot add that he has satisfactorily demonstrated their truth.

The 2d Dissertation treats on the Meaning and Use of the Word *Heavens*; and we are given to understand, that by the *Heaven of Heaven* is meant 'the Universe or System of Fixed Stars;' by *Heavens of Heavens*, 'the Universe of Universes;' and by the single word *Heaven*, 'the Starry Mansions of Bliss;' but this is a mere fanciful interpretation. Our Saviour's comparison of the kingdom of *the Heavens* to a man sowing good seed in his field cannot be reconciled to this distinction. The words ουρανος and ουρανοι are not employed in Scripture with the precision here alleged; nor was it necessary that they should be so used. In the first verse of Genesis, the Hebrew word for Heaven is in the plural number, though in the lxx it is in the singular.

In the 3d Dissertation, Mr. King resists the notion that the Sun and Fixed Stars are not older than our Earth, and that these will be destroyed at what we call the end of the world.

The Greek word Αιων, in its various applications, is supposed to have as many different meanings as the word Ουρανος, and to merit equally profound attention; as there is the *Heaven*, the *Heaven of Heaven*, and the *Heavens of Heavens*, so there is a distinction between the *Aion—the Aion of Aion*,—and *the Aions*, as relating to different states of duration. Ps. 48. 15. accordingly to the lxx, is made to explain this mystery, especially with the help of the author's version:

> 'Οτι ὗτός ἐστιν ὁ Θεὸς, ὁ Θεὸς ἡμῶν εἰς τὸν αἰῶνα,
> Καὶ εἰς τὸν αἰῶνα τοῦ αἰῶνος.
> Αὐτὸς ποιμανεῖ ἡμᾶς εἰς τοὺς αἰῶνας.

'*For this God is our God through* THE AION, *and through* THE AION OF AION. *He shall be our Pastor*, (or *Guide*,) THROUGH THE AIONS.'

As the author speaks with trembling apprehension concerning these different *aions*, or existences in *stars*, *planets*, and *heavenly worlds*, we shall retreat from the giddy height, and hasten to his Dissertation concerning the Creation of Man; which is more intelligible, and more amusing.

Here the honour of being descended from Adam is denied to a great part of the human species; among whom, it is asserted, there exist different breeds, as among horses and dogs. Adam, it is contended, is only the *first* progenitor of the *first* or highest

class or cast of men. Let Mr. King speak for himself on this subject:

Gen. i. 27. ' Καὶ ἐποίησεν ὁ ΘΕΟΣ τὸν ἄνθρωπον, κατ' εἰκόνα ΘΕΟΥ ἐποίησεν αὐτόν· ἄρσεν καὶ θῆλυ ἐποίησεν αὐτούς.

' *So* GOD *created man in His own image, in the image of God created He him: male and female created He them.*

' We tacitly are led then, in the very outset of the Mosaic account, to infer, that as, in the whole wondrous chain of creation, every particular kind, or sort of animal, as well as whales, exists in a distinct *genus*, consisting of many subdivisions of different *species*; all of whom are nevertheless of the *same blood*, and can procreate and produce intermediate species; whereas animals of different *genera* cannot produce any continuing offspring:—so *Man* also, the head of the visible creation on earth, was at first created *of one* GENUS *indeed*,—and all *of one blood*,—and *in the image of GOD*;—but *of different species*;—with different capacities,—and powers,—and dispositions,—for very wise purposes;—having ADAM, (of supereminent abilities, and endowments,) as *the first and head class*, or *species*;—and who was therefore distinguished by that noble appellation, of being A SON OF GOD.

' Can any one, who contemplates the Works of God, and the Power of God, either necessarily, or even reasonably once conclude, that the *Whale-bone* Whale, or the *Grampus* Whale, the *Spermaceti* Whale, the *Fin Fish* Whale, (to use their vulgar names,)—or the different species of the *Balena*, that are so cautiously distinguished by natural historians, were *all* produced from one single pair of Whales; because only the words τὰ κήτη τὰ μεγάλα, *the great Whales*, are used in the general description, in the 21st verse of the Mosaical account?

' Can any one conceive, that the *Bounce Shark*,—the *rough Hound*, or *Morgay Shark*,—the *Blue Shark*,—and the *White Shark*,—all proceeded from the same pair?

' Or when we read, ver. 25, that God made *the Beast of the earth, after his kind*, (or genus,) and Cattle after their kind; can any one suppose, that the great *Newfoundland Dog*,—the Spaniel,—and the little Dutch *Pug Dog*,—were all descended originally from one and the same pair?

' Or that the very different kinds of Horses had all one only pair to produce them; when such care is taken, even in these modern days, about an equestrian pedigree?

' In like manner, it is almost impossible to rest satisfied with believing, contrary to the whole analogy of the works of creation, that the *White* European,—or Asiatic,—and the *Black long-haired South American*,—the Black *curled-haired African Negro*,—the *Cossack Tartar*,—the *Eskimaux*,—and the *Malayan*,—were all descended from one common ancestor, and mother. And especially as, to this hour, the *very gradation* by which a *white family* may, by various tinting descents, become a *black one*, and by which *a black family* may become a *white one*, are well known:—and to this hour, there is also a *characteristick anatomical distinction* between the *white* man,—and the *black* man,—not only in the well-known *reticulum mucosum*, but also in the very form of *the head*; in the *os frontis*, and *os bregmatis*, or fore and hind part

part of the crown; and in the extended projection of the lower jaw, and lower parts of the face.

'Both *Whites*, and *Negroes*, and all the tribes of mankind, are most undoubtedly *all of one blood*, as the holy Apostle expresses it;—and can intermarry.—They are, as undoubtedly, *all intelligent reasonable beings, created in the image of God*;—they are all undoubtedly commanded to exercise brotherly love, and are equally objects of Divine mercy;—but they seem unquestionably to have been, from the very first, of different external formation;—and most probably of different powers, dispositions, and capacities; distinguished in such a manner, as no change of climate can sufficiently account for,—notwithstanding the ingenious apprehensions, and plausible reasonings of a *Montesquieu*.

'What can we conclude then?—but that this first chapter of Genesis, when fairly and rightly understood, describes merely, with regard to MAN, *the Creation of the whole distinct* GENUS, at the head of the rest of the works of ALMIGHTY GOD; and *That Genus*, (like the *genera*, or *kinds* of inferior animals,) in the part of his nature which is connected with the animal visible creation, consisting of *several different species*, or *classes*, or *tribes*—Let *Logicians*, or *Linnæans*, describe the subordinate divisions in *whatever terms* they please.'

How, according to this account, can Eve be called the mother of all living; or how can all be said to die in Adam?

Cain is conjectured to have debased himself by marrying into an inferior cast: but the pure Adamitic blood was preserved in the line of Seth.

Respecting the Deluge, it is supposed that, though it was universal, *all* men and *all* animals were not destroyed by it:

'On a fair consideration and investigation of the whole account,' says Mr. K. 'we are at liberty to conclude, that whilst this one branch *of the principal and highest race of mankind*, was preserved in the ark, by this special interposition, and direction of Divine Providence, which is so fully recorded, that some few other human beings, the descendants of the other *Classes*, or *Species*, of the first created men, might be preserved here and there, by the direction, and permission of Almighty Wisdom;—and by such providential means of deliverance, as are in general called *fortunate accidents*'—

'We have as plain intimations as can be given, that *even in the neighbourhood of Syria, and of Armenia*, there were found, in very early ages, *a race of men*, of different denominations; who were preserved from the general wreck of the deluge; though not by means of the ark:—and although not descended from Noah.

'And if *here*, they were so preserved; in countries so near to that where the ark itself rested; how much rather might scattered remains of the various *species*, and *casts* of mankind at large, be found, in more remote parts of the earth?'—

'But whilst we admit this conclusion, it certainly seems also to appear, from every circumstance of history which we are acquainted with,

with, that by means of the preservation *alone* of the *sacred race*, and divinely-instructed family of *Noah* in the ark, was indeed preserved the knowlege of such of the Divine arts of cultivation, and of adornment in Paradise, as at all remained known to the minds of men.'

To this notion of a superior class commencing in Adam, and of the preservation of a sacred race from which the Messiah regularly sprang, it may be objected that some of Cain's progeny, viz. *Enoch*, *Methuselah*, and *Lamech*, though he is supposed to have intermarried with an inferior cast, are found in the genealogy of Christ, as it is given in Luke iii. Mr. King, however, endeavours to make his theory consistent. He observes that, as in the Paradisaical State the first class were called the *Sons of God*, and as that event which is denominated the Fall destroyed the purity of this cast by intermarriages with lower casts; so, in the Restoration of all Things, the first class or cast will be revived in its pristine purity in the *Elect*, who are to judge the world, to be invested with the title of *Sons of God*, and be what the *Sons of Adam* would have been had there been no transgression. Mr. K. does not encourage the hope of an Universal Restoration: for he gives it as his opinion that, as '*all* mankind were not originally the *Sons of Adam*, neither will *all* Mankind be *the Sons of God*.'

A Dissertation on the Sabbath and sabbatical æra represents Nature, in all her departments, as shewing a decided preference for *the number seven*; which, according to Mr. King, includes a reference to some sublime and pre-ordained appointment. How highly delighted would Dr. Slop have been with the following enumeration! *Seven* Days of the Week; *Seven* Spirits of God; *Seven* Churches; *Seven* Planets; Clean Beasts went by *sevens* into the Ark; *Seven* Primary Colours; *Seven* Notes of Music; *Seven* Metals; *Seven* Semi-metals; *Seven* kinds of Earths; *Seven* kinds of Gasses; *Seven* kinds of Gums; *Seven* of pellucid Jewels; *Seven* kinds of Salts; *Seven* kinds of Fires; *Seven* kinds of liquid Substances; *Seven* kinds of Attractions; and, to enjoy all these gifts of Nature, *seven* Senses; for, know, Gentle Reader! to make out the sacred number, Mr. K. adds to the commonly received five senses, the Sense of Pleasure and the Sense of Pain, as two distinct Senses.—We shall not discuss Mr. King's chronology, but shall introduce a remark relative to the Sabbath. By not reckoning the day according to the original institution, *i. e.* from evening to morning, instead of from morning to evening, we are told that its solemn and sacred observance is overthrown:

'Whilst (says he) we continue to reckon the day,—from twelve o'clock at night, till the same hour the ensuing night;—we render it impossible that such a period should be passed *without* necessary *work*;

work; unless the decent cleanlinesses of life are to be neglected;—the neglect of which, would be an odd sort of *sacred observance*.'

In the next Dissertation, an attempt is made to remove the præternatural appearance from some of the events which are commonly deemed miraculous, by reconciling the accounts of them with philosophical facts; and Mr. King may be correct in some of his explanations of the sacred narrative, in as much as we have imagined miracles where no miracles were intended. For example, in the cases of fasting recorded of Elijah and others in the O. T. nothing more may have been implied, than that they took no food from six in the morning till six in the evening; and "Lot's wife becoming a pillar of salt," may only mean that her body was overwhelmed with a heap of ashes. To suppose, however, that Shadrach, Meshac, and Abednego, were saved from being burnt in the fiery furnace by an indraft and outdraft of air, or that the walls of Jericho fell down in consequence of the arch of a subterraneous cavern giving way, is to outrage probability, to increase the scoffs of the scoffers, and to throw a ridicule on Sacred criticism: yet such, we are well persuaded, could never have been the intention of so pious a writer as Mr. King. As little can we admire the author's commentary on the passage of Exodus, in which the Israelites are represented as spoiling the Egyptians. It should seem by Mr. King's apology that the Israelites were blameless in this transaction: that they borrowed, and meant to return and restore: but Pharoah pursued, and prevented them.

Notes relative to the Seals, Trumpets, and Vials in the Book of Revelation,—concerning the Falling away before the Second Coming of the Messiah,—and on the meaning of the word Σημειον,—finally present themselves: but on these topics we have not time to offer any strictures. We must not, however, omit to inform our readers that Mr. King endeavours to demonstrate that our earth is a *mere shell*, manifesting exteriorly primæval or reflected glory, and having internally a cavern of utter darkness, designed for the prison-house of the wicked. In consequence of its being a hollow globe, sinners, we find, have a place provided for them below the surface; while above it 'the *Wild Goose*, *Eagle*, and *Condor*, are enabled to fly higher than a *Tom Tit* and a *Sparrow*.'!!

ART. III. *Munimenta Antiqua;* or Observations on ancient Castles, Including Remarks on the whole Progress of Architecture, Ecclesiastical as well as Military, in Great Britain; and on the corresponding Changes, in Manners, Laws, and Customs. Tending both to illustrate Modern History, and to elucidate many interesting Passages in various antient Classic Authors. By Edward King, Esq, F. R. S. and A. S. Vol. II. Folio. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

IN our account of the first volume *, we announced the plan of this extensive and superb undertaking; which embraces an elaborate history of Architecture in this country from the days of primæval simplicity and barbarism to the present times, arranged under the four grand divisions of *British*, *Roman*, *Saxon*, and *Norman*. To each head a separate volume is assigned; and in course that which is now before us is occupied with inquiries relative to the works of the Romans in this island, and the style and character of their Architecture. Mr. King has exerted great labour, and employed much learning, in order to illustrate his subject; and if his materials are not so abundant as he might wish, they are nevertheless more ample and amusing than those which furnished matter for the preceding volume. Our painted ancestors knew nothing of Architecture as a science, and every trace of their huts and humble dwellings must soon have perished. Of the monuments attributed to the Druids, indeed, we have some remains: but, as they are not illustrated by history, our inquiries respecting them are confined to the region of conjecture. When, however, we approach the period of Roman conquest and government of Britain, our path is directed by a more certain light; and though here the marks which are to guide us are comparatively few and mutilated, we arrive at some certain conclusions. It ought not to be matter of surprize, as it seems to be with this industrious and learned antiquary, that there are few remains of any considerable structures of the Romans in this country, excepting those of their military walls and camps; because Britain was with difficulty kept in subjection, and the military establishments occupied their chief attention. On this ground, Mr. King might have doubted the grandeur of the edifices of the Romans in this island: but this doubt cannot be justified by the few vestiges of their private dwellings which have been discovered. If it be considered that nearly 1400 years have elapsed since they renounced the empire of Britain; that Italy itself furnishes scarcely any specimens of their villas or habitations; and that most of the Saxon edifices, erected some

* See M. R. Vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 367.

centuries

centuries after them, have yielded to the crumbling hand of time and disappeared;—we shall not wonder at the scanty traces of Roman magnificence. Some foundations of their dwellings, however, have been brought to light; and from their extent, and the tesselated pavements which they inclosed, they are supposed to have belonged to persons of distinction: yet even these, Mr. King is inclined to think, displayed not in their original state any striking architectural grandeur and beauty, but consisted of one story, mostly constructed of wood. It may be objected that the width and solidity of these foundations do not entirely accord with this conjecture: there is, indeed, the best reason for believing them to have been only one story high: but, had they been slight edifices composed of frame-work, or of slender walls, such a strength of foundation would not have been required.

Earth-works and fortifications, from the nature of their construction and their peculiar solidity, are much better calculated to endure through successive generations, than temples and villas; the former of which may be subverted by religious zeal, and the latter will perish by the hand of time: while mounds of earth, which are soon covered with green sward, resembling works of nature, excite no resentment; and those ramparts and walls, which formed places of retreat and protection to the original conquerors, were likely to be repaired and in some instances enlarged by subsequent invaders.

To works of this kind, erected by the Romans in this island, Mr. King first directs his attention; and in explaining their system of castrametation, he acknowledges his obligations to the late General Roy, whose *Military Antiquities* are often quoted; while frequent references are also made to the admirable collection of plates which enrich that valuable work:—Not that Mr. King uniformly accords with the General, for sometimes he opposes his representations, and corrects those which he deems erroneous.

Omitting here the consideration of *Brito-Roman Fortresses*, or of those strong holds which the Invaders found in a great measure prepared to their hands, and which only required some improvements to render them fit for their own use; the author proposes to direct the attention of the reader to those works which were *originally*, *truly*, and *entirely Roman*. In his enumeration of Roman *Castra*, he commences with that of *Richborough* in Kent; which is the most celebrated of these military structures, as being not only the earliest in the order of time, but as continuing in a better state of preservation than most others. By the communications of Mr. Boys of Sandwich, the present occupier of the land, who has attentively examined the

walls

walls and foundations, Mr. King has been enabled to give a full (and we suppose a very accurate) account of these military remains. This and the other details in the present volume are interspersed with frequent references to sacred history, and sometimes with reflections which almost border on the ludicrous; of which, before we close this article, we shall give some specimens. The observations on the Roman Castrum at Richborough display the author's disposition to allude, on all occasions, to scripture history, while they manifest his ability as an antiquary:

'There is every reason to believe, from the concurrent testimony of medals, and of coins dug up, and of fragments of history, that this magnificent *Castrum* was first formed, in the time of the Emperor *Claudius*;—near the spot where the Romans most usually landed;—where Julius Cæsar is with good reason believed to have arrived after he sailed from the heights near Dover;—and where St. Paul is supposed to have landed, when he afforded to this country, in the earliest age of Christianity, the first light of the Gospel;—causing those who were *last* in point of civilization, to be numbered amongst the *first*, in the advantages of Divine Instruction.

'Here, in the time of Claudius, *Vespasian* was in command;—who was, indeed, the very first Roman general that truly subdued Britain; after having fought thirty-two battles, and taken more than twenty towns; and after having subdued the Isle of *Wight*. And here *Agricola* first arrived in the time of *Domitian*.

'The situation was such, as to have commanded, formerly, in the completest manner one of the mouths of the once great *estuary*:—*Reculver* having been a similar fortress, in those days, at the other entrance. And the tract between (where now is only the little rivulet, *the Sarr*, or *Stour*, with its bordering meadows), having been the great harbour, where floated the Roman navy; riding in safety, between the British shore, and the then real island, still called the *Isle of Thanet*.

'The importance of this port easily accounts for its having been from the very first beginning of the Roman invasion, so much attended to.

'Its walls, we have reason to believe, were begun about the year 43.—The present structure, however, as well as the remains at *Reculver*, appears to have been, in part, built, or at least to have been added to, and completed, by the Emperor Severus, about the year 205.

'It stands on the extreme point of an hill, or sort of promontory, close to a steep precipice eastward; at the foot of which was the haven;—but where now runs the river *Stour*, or *Sarr*;—and there is the greatest reason to think, that the spot on which this fortress is situated, was also originally, in itself a little distinct Island; whilst the Isle of Thanet was such on a much larger scale:—for a narrow slip of marsh near adjoining, between this spot and *Gursom*, is, even to this very day, sometimes quite overflowed in wet seasons.

'There

'There are, in this distinguished fortress, still plainly to be traced, all the principal parts of one of the very greatest, and most perfect of the *stationary* Roman camps.

'The upper division, for the general, and chief officers;—and the lower division for the legions. And, in the former, the *Prætorium*, with its parade; (sometimes called the *principia*;) containing the *Augurale*, or place for sacrifices, and for consulting the entrails of victims; and the *sacellum*, or small temple, for depositing the chief ensigns; and especially the eagles; which it is well known were made objects of superstitious worship by the Romans; and which are therefore so justly described, in the Holy Scriptures, by the appellation of being the *Abomination of Desolation*. A circumstance, that, on this occasion, deserves the more particularly to be remembered; because it is highly probable, that some of the same kind of Roman eagles were once placed in this identical building at *Richborough*, by Vespasian, that were afterward carried by him against *Jerusalem*, together with the rest of those *very standards* that are alluded to, in the tremendous prophecy, concerning the destruction of the Holy City.

'In the walls of this castrum also, we have the traces of the *four* great gates.

'The *Decuman gate*; or largest gate of all; which took its very name, from being wide enough to permit *ten men at least* to march through it abreast;—and which always conveyed such an idea of magnificent dimensions; that the very word *decumanus* was classically used by the Romans, to signify any thing that was both *huge*, and *fair*;—beautiful, and of *vast size*.

'The Postern gate; or first *principal gate*; (so called because it was *near* the quarters of the principal officers,) and which was narrow; and constructed of such a particular form, as to be most easily defended.

'The *Prætorian gate*; or as it was in this instance, *the water gate*.

'And a fourth, on the side nearly opposite to the *postern*; which was the *second principal gate*.

'Adjoining to the same walls also, on the outside, have been traced foundations of towers clearly Roman; but which yet, (as plainly appears from some part of their construction,) must have been added, *after* the walls of the castrum were built. A circumstance that shews the more strongly the very high antiquity of the original structure.'

A particular account is given of the manner in which the walls of this castrum were constructed, illustrated by plates; and, in noticing the alternate layers of courses of Roman bricks between the stones, Mr. King happily explains a passage in Revelations xxi., relative to the disposition of the precious stones said to be employed in decorating the walls of the Holy City. According to the English translation, they were placed in the foundations, where their beauty must have been lost: but this critic remarks that the word there rendered *Foundations* means these layers or courses between the stone-work:

'The several alternate rows, or courses of stone and brick, (here described, as appearing in this wall,) were by the Greeks who lived in Roman

Roman times, called Θεμέλιοι or Θεμέλια; and are the kind of ornaments alluded to by St. John, as being so highly beautiful, according to every one's apprehension, in his days; when, in his emblematical representation of the walls of the Holy City, in the Prophecy of the Revelations, he speaks of such, being formed of precious stones. The word, Θεμέλια, is in our translation of the passage, very improperly rendered, as far as relates to a consistency with our modern ideas, *foundations*; instead of *courses*: and this mistranslation occasions much confusion in the minds of most persons, who attempt to read the Prophet's sublime description.

'Nevertheless the reason why these alternate rows either of brick, or of smooth flat stones, were antiently called Θεμέλια, or Θεμέλιοι, *foundations*, (though the word seems now so uncouth, and inapplicable, in our ears,) is yet apparent enough. For whoever examines Roman walls attentively, will find, that most usually the broader alternate rows of rude stone, or flints, or rubble, and mortar, were evidently constructed, merely by having the whole mass flung carelessly into a great *caisson*, or frame of wood, whose interior *breadth* was that of the wall; and whose *depth* was that of the space between the alternate rows of bricks; and whose length was sometimes more, and sometimes less, just as suited convenience: and that the parts thus reared, one at the end of another, on, and over each row of bricks, were united together afterwards, merely by means of very small loose stones, and mortar, thrown into the narrow space left at the ends between them.—As therefore these *caissons* were removed up from one row of bricks or smooth stones to another superior row, in constant repetition, according as the wall advanced in height; and were placed successively upon every row; those substantial rows of bricks regularly placed, might very well be called Θεμέλιοι, or Θεμέλια, or *foundations*; because, indeed, *such* they really were, the whole way up, to those identical building frames.'

Mr. King, however, does not mean to assert that all Roman walls were so built.

The foundations in the form of a Cross, in the center of the platform constituting the *Prætorium*, Mr. King imagines, were those of a *Sacellum*, constructed for the reception of the *principal eagles* and military standards of the several legions: but we have no proof that the Romans built Temples and Sacella in this form; and it is more probable, as the first Christians were induced to convert the very spots which had been dedicated to Pagan superstition into places of Christian worship, that these remains are the foundations of a Christian religious edifice, erected at a subsequent period.

Porchester in Hampshire,—*Pevensey Castle* in Sussex,—*Castor* in Norfolk,—*Chesterford* in Sussex, &c. &c. &c., engage the notice of this ingenious antiquary: but our space will not permit us to follow him through all his details.—Some of the most considerable of the Roman earth-works are also enumerated and described; in which department of the undertaking,

the author professes to borrow from the Military Antiquities. Those at *Ardoch*, in Strathallan; at *Birrens*, in Annandale; at *Chew Green*, on the Borders; and near *Kirkhoddo*, in Strathmore, Angus; are specified as most worthy of examination.

After having traced the sites and the dimensions of Roman Castra, Mr. King undertakes the more difficult task of explaining the mode of their occupation by the Roman legions, and the distribution of the different officers and troops of which the Roman armies consisted. For this purpose, it was necessary to ascertain the component parts of a legion. Here Mr. King observes that

'A single legion most usually consisted of 4200 foot, and of 300 horse;—and was composed of the following different *corps*, (as we should now call them);—

1200 *Velites*, or light armed troops.
1200 *Hastati*,
1200 *Principes*,
600 *Triarii*,
} all heavy armed.
300 *Equites*; or Roman knights;—forming the cavalry.

4500

To all which there almost constantly was an addition of *Auxiliaries*, or *Socii*, consisting of 4200 foot,
and 900 horse;

5100

causing the amount of the whole regular force to be 9600 men.'

Their subdivisions of the infantry into maniples, and of the cavalry into turmæ, the number of the officers assigned to each, and the particular manner in which the several descriptions of troops were armed, are also stated. Speaking of the *Triarii*, who were picked and chosen veterans, and who had their spears much thicker and shorter than the rest; he takes occasion to hint, in one of those curious notes to which we have already alluded, that 'this shortness and thickness of the pile or spear, being an usage derived from more ancient warlike nations, is an argument that may induce us to suspect the first Romans to have been descended, *somehow or other*, from the Philistines.' Thus, from this trivial circumstance, it is, *somehow or other*, to be inferred that the Romans and the Carthaginians had the same origin. Mr. King immediately subjoins another "Morsel of Criticism;" viz. that 'these thick spears which were 3 inches in diameter, and about 4½ feet long, enable us to understand the propriety of the expression in Holy Writ, concerning *Goliah the Philistine;—that the staff of his spear was like a wea-*

ver's beam.' The expression, in our opinion, remains as hyperbolical as it was before.

To return from this digression, and from the Giant of Gath and his enormous spear, to the distribution of a Roman legion in an encampment. At this distance of time, it is impossible to specify the minutiæ of the arrangement with precision, though Polybius has furnished us with several important data, respecting the mode in which a consular camp was formed.—' First, a standard or *Eagle* was placed *where*, by the Consul's appointment, the Prætorium was to be fixed; then the sides on which the *Decuman* and Prætorian gates were to be placed being determined, a space was set off in both these directions, and in the traverse direction, of *one hundred Roman feet each way;*—*with an area comprising about four Roman acres.*' In translating the passage in Polybius describing the contents of the area of the Prætorium, (Lib. VI. § 25.) Mr. King differs from Casaubon, Hampton, and General Roy; and he ingeniously maintains the propriety of his new version: which, though it may not give Polybius's idea with absolute correctness, yet avoids the impossibility asserted by the former translations, by which it should seem that an area of 200 feet square contained four acres, when, in fact, it does not contain two. The words of Polybius are:

' Τοῦ κειμένου ἀεὶ τόπου πρὸς Σκρατόπεδείαν — — — — — —
Τεθείσης δὲ τῆς σημαίας, οὗ μέλλουσι πηγνύναι ταυτην ἀπομετρεῖται πέριξ τῆς σημαίας τετράγωνος τόπος ὥστε πάσας τὰς πλευρὰς ἑκατὸν ἀπέχειν πόδας τῆς σημαίας, τὸ δὲ ἐμβαδὸν γίνεσθαι τετράπλεθρον.'

which Hampton translates,

" *In this place* (*i. e.* in the place marked out for the Consular tent) *an ensign is planted in the ground, and round it is measured a quadrangular figure, every side of which is distant from the ensign an hundred feet; so that the whole contents of it are equal to the space of four acres.*"

To obviate the palpable error of this assertion, Mr. King considers το εμβαδον as meaning not *the area* itself, but the walk *round it;* and he thus literally renders the passage:

' *The place always being first fixed upon for the* PRÆTORIUM;—*and the standard being pitched where they were about to set up* THAT;—*there was then measured round the standard a square space;—so that all* ITS *sides were an hundred feet distant from the standard;—and so that the walk round* (this) *was of four acres.*'

Admitting this version, the area of the Prætorium, in a consular camp *of two legions and auxiliaries*, was 400 feet square; and this space being first marked out,

' A line was drawn before the Prætorium and parallel to it, at the distance of 50 feet, running quite across the camp,—and within this boundary,

boundary, on each side the Prætorium, were placed the tents of the twelve Tribunes, at equal distances;—six on the right, and six on the left; the spaces between serving for their horses, and attendants:—and beyond them, nearer to the two extremities, the tents of the twelve Præfects of the Allies, six on the right, and six on the left, were placed in the same manner;—having the whole of the soldiers tents in their front.

'Beyond this line, another was marked parallel to it, at the distance of 100 feet: and this latter interval formed the *Principia*, or the principal street, in the front of these officers' tents:—at the extremities of which street were the two *principal*, or side *gates*.

'This street was always kept clear of all incumbrances, by a constant guard;—was made quite level;—always kept smooth, and clean;—and served for mustering the whole army, previous to a march.'

We cannot insert the detailed explanation which follows, and must close this subject with transcribing the table of admeasurement and the subjoined remark.—A Roman camp being a perfect square, the breadth of the camp along the Principia, or principal street, from one side gate to the other, will consist of

	Feet.
'The breadth of the space left next the Vallum	200
Two maniples of *Allied foot*	200
A street	50
Two maniples of Allied horse	200
A street	50
A maniple of *Hastati*, and a maniple of *Principes*	200
A street	50
A maniple of *Triarii*, and a maniple of *Equites*	150
The great Decuman street, in the midst	50
A maniple of *Equites*, and a maniple of *Triarii*	150
A street	50
A maniple of *Principes*, and a maniple of *Hastati*	200
A street	50
Two maniples of *Allied horse*	200
A street	50
Two maniples of *Allied foot*	200
The breadth of the space left next the Vallum	200
	2250

and the length of the Camp, from the *Decuman*, to the *Prætorian* gate, will consist of,

	Feet.
The breadth of the space left next the Vallum	200
Five maniples of Roman *Equites*	500
The street *Quintana*	50
Five maniples of Roman *Equites*	500
The *Principia*, or principal street	100
Carried over	1350

Brought over	1350
The *Tribunes'* allotment - - -	50
The *Prætorium* - - - -	400
The great street behind the *Prætorium* -	100
A maniple of *Extraordinary horse*, and half a maniple of *Extraordinary foot* - - -	150
The breadth of the space left next the Vallum	200
	2250

'And it is most remarkable, and no small confirmation of the propriety of adopting all these ideas precisely; that these dimensions for the sides of a Consular camp, agree better with the curious Remain of the camp at *Kirkboddo*, that has been already mentioned, (and which General Roy so justly concludes to have been designed to hold a single Legion, with its Allies,) than his own dimensions assigned for a Consular camp:—for it was 2280 feet in length, and 1080 feet in breadth *.'

We must not pass this system of Roman castrametation, without transcribing another of Mr. King's ingenious notes:

'It is curious, to reflect on *second causes*, upon this occasion: and in considering the progress of the various *great Powers* that have been on earth, to discern,—that the improvement, of the construction of *rapid armed Chariots of Iron*, seems to have produced *the first Assyrian Kingdom*;—the improvement, of the mode of *Fortification*, by means of stronger stone walls, and towers; and of the mode of *Attack*, by means of *blockading Cities* with *vast hosts*; seems to have produced the *Babylonian Empire*:—the improvement, of forming bodies of *Cavalry*, seems to have produced the *Persian*;—the improvement, of forming a *Phalanx*, of heavy armed troops, seems to have produced the *Macedonian*. This invention of *Castrametation*, and strict *Discipline*, the Roman;—Raging zeal, and the *Sabre*,—*the Saracen*;—and the invention of *Cannon*, *and Gunpowder*, the *Turkish Empire*.

'* The square area of a Roman camp, according to General Roy's dimensions of its sides, which he computed to be 2150 Roman feet, or about 2077⅓ English feet, will be 4622500 Roman feet, or very nearly 4314621 square English feet: and the half, therefore, 2311250 Roman square feet, or 2157310½ English square feet. But, according to the conclusions formed in these pages, its sides will be each just 2250 Roman feet, or about 2173 English feet; and its square area 5062500 Roman square feet, or about 4721929 English square feet:—and the half thereof, 2531250 Roman, or 2360964½ English square feet.

'Now the camp at *Kirkboddo* is, according to General Roy's measures, 2280 feet, by 1080. Its area, therefore, is plainly 2462400 square English feet. And this unquestionably agrees better with 2360964½, the half of a Consular camp of 2173 feet square; than with 2157310½ square feet, the half of 2077⅓ feet square.

'Or, if we take the measures in Roman feet; according to which the sides of the camp at Kirkboddo will be very nearly 2360, by 1148. Then its area, 2631480 Roman square feet, agrees better with 2531250, the half of a Consular camp of 2250 Roman feet square, than with 2311250, the half of 2150 Roman feet square.'

They

'They were all *instruments* in the hands of the MOST HIGH.—And *that*, which we are ever too ready to consider as *mere invention*;—awakened, as it appeared to the common eye, only in the minds of one or two obscure men, whose names we are hardly acquainted with; seems to have been indeed, the main hidden spring, that did put in motion all these so *vast Powers*, that have terribly produced, from generation to generation, such tremendous, and such different events, in successive periods, on the face of the whole earth.

'Was not then *that invention* a sort of *real Inspiration?*—And are we not led to conclude certainly that it was so;—even from what is expressly said in Holy Writ, concerning the exquisite skill of *Bezaleel*, and *Aholiab?*'

From military antiquities, the author descends to those of a more private and humble kind; adducing the number of fragile tesselated pavements, as proofs of the slightness of the superstructures originally belonging to them; for, as we have already remarked, he is of opinion that the Romans displayed no grandeur in their buildings in Britain. The antiquities discovered at Woodchester (of which the ingenious Mr Lysons has given complete representations,*) deservedly employ much of Mr. King's attention. Here, in describing a tesselated or mosaic pavement, found in a room which is conjectured to have been the state *Triclinium*, he particularly mentions the *labyrinth fret* with which it is bordered; adding, in a note, that since this said fret is also found in Tuscan Vases, on the cloths of the South Sea Islanders, in China, and in Japan—'I could almost be inclined to call it *Eve's pattern.*' We have heard of Eve's spinning, but never before of the patterns which she worked on her garments.

Whether the author be correct or otherwise in concluding that the buildings of the Romans, in this island, were inferior to the usual estimate of them, he has suggested the best possible way of illustrating these antiquities, by appealing to the description of Roman buildings in Italy. The accounts given by the younger Pliny of his villas at Tusculum and Laurentum will occur to the classical reader; who has perhaps often laboured in vain to form the ground plan of either from these descriptions, though very minute. Mr. King ventures on a plan of the Laurentine Villa, according to the representation of it which Pliny himself sends to his friend Gallus (Lib. 2. Ep. 17.): but, though we have been amused by the attempt, so many objections presented themselves as we were comparing it with the letter, that we cannot compliment him on his success.

By the circumstance of there being few remains of Roman arches in Britain, the author is led to inquire into the date of

* See M. Rev. Vol. xxv. N. S. p. 173.

the invention of the arch, which did not long precede the invasion of Julius Cæsar. It is observed that there were no *Arches* in Solomon's temple, and that there is no mention of them by Homer; no arches in the Egyptian temples or pyramids, nor in the pensile gardens at Babylon, nor in the antient Hindoo buildings, nor in the ruins of Persepolis, nor at Athens, nor in the temples of Ephesus and Pæstum. Mr. K. apprehends that the *Arch* was originally invented by Archimedes, and introduced but a short time previously to the Augustan age. He does not attribute its origin, as he does the proportions of the Ionic order, to Revelation: but its introduction at the period just specified occasions one of those far fetched remarks, which, in our judgment, add not to the merit of the work. Having observed that the Arch was invented no very long time before the age of Augustus, he subjoins this note:

'If this be the real fact, it is a very remarkable concurrence of *circumstances*, and *æras*, that the very first notice taken of *the form of an arch*, and the very first mention of it upon record, should have been when the glorious *rain bow* in heaven was made the *everlasting sign*, and token of *Reconciliation* and *Mercy*; and that the first *realizing of the arch*, and the first instances of the bringing of it into actual use, as *a part of architecture*, should have been precisely in the æra in which the *promised Deliverer*, THE LORD OF PEACE, descended upon earth, and took upon him to be born as a man, to seal the first and original everlasting promise, and Covenant of Salvation.'

In the concluding Reflections, the author considers the Roman Invasion of this country, though utterly unjustifiable, and attended with many horrid cruelties, as having been the means employed by Providence for putting an end to *Druidical Superstition*, and at length for introducing the *Light of the Gospel*, with the consequent ideas of improved civilization.

Many plates enrich this work, from the continuation of which we expect much entertainment.

ART. IV. *A General System of Nature*, through the three grand Kingdoms of Animals, Vegetables, and Minerals; systematically divided into their several Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties, with their Habitations, Manners, Economy, Structure, and Peculiarities. Translated from Gmelin's last Edition of the celebrated *Systema Naturæ*, by Sir Charles Linné: Amended and enlarged by the Improvements and Discoveries of later Naturalists and Societies, with appropriate Copper-plates. By William Turton, M. D., Author of the Medical Glossary. 4 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 10s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1802.

THE public have so long been in possession of the Linnéan arrangement of natural objects, with various enlargements and improvements, and of our sentiments concerning its excellencies

lencies and defects, that we deem it superfluous to resume the consideration of its merits on the present occasion. Of the various editions of the *Systema Naturæ*, that of Gmelin holds the first rank. That it has not sooner appeared in an English form is, probably, owing to the bulky nature of the work, and to the limited number of naturalists who are unacquainted with the Latin language. In proportion, however, as the acquirement of the latter becomes less an object of general study, and a scientific contemplation of the works of nature begins to be diffused among various ranks, and especially among the fair sex, a vernacular exhibition of the prevailing nomenclature and characters is rendered more desirable.

To fidelity and perspicuity, the prime virtues of a translator, Dr. Turton seems to have scrupulously adhered. The four volumes now published comprehend the animal kingdom, and include upwards of thirty new genera, with a proportionate number of species. As an exemplification of the work, we quote the first and last genus, and an intermediate one at random:

MAMMALIA.

ORDER I. PRIMATES.

Fore-teeth cutting; upper 4, parallel; teats 2 pectoral.

1. HOMO.

Sapiens. Diurnal; varying by education and situation.

2. Four footed, mute, hairy. *Wild Man.*

3. Copper-coloured, choleric, erect. *American.*
Hair black, straight, thick; *nostrils* wide, *face* harsh; *beard* scanty; *obstinate,* content, free. *Paints* himself with fine red lines. *Regulated* by customs.

4. Fair, sanguine, brawny. *European.*
Hair yellow, brown, flowing; *eyes* blue; *gentle,* acute, inventive. *Covered* with close vestments. *Governed* by laws.

5. Sooty, melancholy, rigid. *Asiatic.*
Hair black; *eyes* dark; *severe,* haughty, covetous. *Covered* with loose garments. *Governed* by opinions.

6. Black, phlegmatic, relaxed. *African.*
Hair black, frizzled; *skin* silky; *nose* flat; *lips* tumid; *crafty,* indolent, negligent. *Anoints* himself with grease. *Governed* by caprice.

Monstrosus. Varying by climate or art.

1. Small, active, timid. *Mountaineer.*
2. Large, indolent. *Patagonian.*
3. Less fertile. *Hottentot.*
4. Beardless. *American.*
5. Head conic. *Chinese.*
6. Head flattened. *Canadian.*

The anatomical, physiological, natural, moral, civil, and social histories of man, are best described by their respective writers.'

'39. CUCUJUS. *Antennæ* filiform: *feelers* 4, equal, the last joint truncate and thicker; *lip* short bifid, the divisions linear and distant: *body* depressed.

'*Depressus.* Thorax denticulate and with the shells red: legs simple black.
Inhabits *Germany*. *Frisch. Ins.* 12. *tab.* 7. *fig.* 1.
Antennæ black hairy: *head* depressed with an obtuse angular globule each side: *mouth* and *eyes* black; *shells* rigid: *body* beneath and legs black.

'*Sulcatus.* Thorax grooved; black; shells with crenate striæ.
Inhabits *Croatia*, in rotten wood.
Antennæ short: *head* with 3 grooves, the middle one longer.

'*Rufipes.* Thorax grooved: shells punctured: black: antennæ and legs ferruginous.
Inhabits *Barbary*, in wood; large.
Antennæ pale-ash, the first joint black; *head* punctured; *thorax* narrowed behind, with 3 grooves: *shells* impressed with numerous dots: *abdomen* piceous: *legs* ferruginous.

'*Cæruleus.* Thorax grooved: black: shells striate blue: abdomen rufous.
Inhabits *Germany*. Tenebrio depressus. *Linn. Syst. Nat.*
Head black: *mouth* piceous: *shells* striate polished.

'*Festivus.* Thorax grooved: black; shells striate blue: edge of the abdomen and shanks rufous.
Inhabits *Germany*; about half as large as the last.
Thorax 2-grooved, or rather impressed each side.

'*Castaneus.* Thorax grooved: black; striate shells margin of the abdomen and legs testaceous.
Inhabits *Germany*; probably a variety of the last.

'*Dubius.* Thorax denticulate; rufous; shells black: antennæ as long as the body.
Inhabits *North America*.
Antennæ flexuous, the last joint acute: *shells* striate.

'*Flavipes.* Thorax denticulate black: legs yellowish: antennæ as long as the body.
Inhabits *Europe*. Cerambyx planatus. *Lyn. Syst. Nat.*
Antennæ brown: *head* black: *mouth* yellowish: *thorax* denticulate grooved: *shells* smooth brown.

'*Pallens.* Thorax serrate dusky: shells striate: abdomen and legs testaceous.
Inhabits *Europe*; very much resembles the last.
Antennæ as long as the body: *shells* testaceous.

'*Derme-*

* *Dermestoides.* Thorax grooved: brown; shells smooth testaceous.
Inhabits *Germany*; small.
Antennæ short: *body* brown: *shells* with 2 grooves.

* *Testaceus.* Thorax nearly square, unarmed: body testaceous; thighs compressed.
Found under the bark of the birch-tree.
Antennæ nearly as long as the body: *body* long: *legs* short.

* *Muticus.* Thorax unarmed black, with an impressed dot each side: shells striate brown.
Inhabits *Germany*.
Antennæ shorter than the *body*: *shells* filiform: *legs* simple.

* *Monilis.* Thorax unarmed with a ferruginous margin: body black: shells with a ferruginous spot.
Inhabits *Germany*.
Antennæ short moniliform: *body* beneath dull ferruginous.

---

* 118. MONAS. *Worm* invisible to the naked eye, most simple, pellucid, resembling a point.

* *Atomus.* Whitish, with a variable point.
Adams Microsc. p. 431. *tab.* 25. *fig.* 1.
In sea water kept a long time: *body* a white point, something oval, with a minute black dot variable in its position, rarely with 2.

* *Punctum.* A solid opake black point.
Adams microsc. p. 431. *n.* 3.
In fetid infusions of pears: *body* round, long, moving in a slow wavering manner.

* *Mica.* Transparent, with an oval movable circle in the middle.
Common in purer waters. *Adams microsc. p.* 433. *n.* 6.
Body a lucid point, variable in its motions, and encompassed by a beautiful halo.

* *Lens.* Transparent, with sometimes a greenish margin.
Baker microsc. expl. tab. 10. *fig.* 1—3.
Lewenh. arcan. nat. p. 40. *fig.* E.
Hill hist. an. tab. 1. 1. *Spallanz. an. Inf. f.* 11.
Joblot microsc. 1. *tab.* 5. *fig.* 8. Z.
Wrish. anim. infus. fig. 1—4.
Found in all water: a round pellucid dot, frequently in masses, without the least vestige of intestines.

* *Termo.* A most minute simple gelatinous point.
Adams microsc. p. 420. *n.* 1.
In most animal and vegetable infusions: of all known animals the most minute and simple, being so extremely delicate and transparent as often to elude

the most highly magnifying powers, blending as it were in the water in which it swims.

These are thy glorious works, parent of good Almighty. MILTON.'

The plates are neither numerous nor finely executed: but they are so contrived as to afford considerable help to the young student. The typography is by no means faultless, and many of the references and synonyms have been omitted, to save room. Notwithstanding these imperfections, however, we regard the present attempt as highly praiseworthy; and we trust that, while it contributes to propagate the growing taste for the study of natural history, it will, at the same time, amply reward the labours of the translator.

ART. V. *An Essay on War, in Blank Verse;* Honington Green, a Ballad; The Culprit, an Elegy; and other Poems on various Subjects. By Nathaniel Bloomfield. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Hurst, &c. 1803.

THESE poems are written by a brother of Mr. Robert Bloomfield, and, like them, are ushered into the world under the auspices of Mr. Capel Lofft; who has deservedly acquired the highest credit by his exertions in favour of unnoticed genius. In the Preface, Mr. L. expresses the warmest approbation of the verses produced by this ingenious candidate for poetical fame; and we should gladly have concurred with him, if the beauties which he describes had been visible to us in the strong colours in which he views them. He speaks thus of one of the poems:

'I regard it as a Poem of extraordinary vigor and originality: in Thought, Plan, Conduct, Language, and Versification. I think it has much indeed of the philosophic character, poetic spirit, force of coloring, energy and pathos, which distinguish LUCRETIUS. Of the justness and spirit of the VERSIFICATION I have already spoken.'

It seems that Mr. Nathaniel Bloomfield is by profession a taylor; and Mr. Lofft has employed some space in obviating the prejudice with which he supposes that a taylor's poetry will be received. We are not conscious of any such idle feeling: but we are obliged to declare our opinion that these poems do not merit the high eulogium bestowed on them by their patron. We speak plainly, because it does not appear probable to us that the paths of poetry, toilsome in effect, however flowery in appearance, will afford any compensation to the author for the relinquishment of his usual habits of honest industry.

industry. The conclusion of Mr. Lofft's Preface made us smile:

'It remains then for Prejudice to vanish like Mists before the Sun: while the two BROTHERS sociably ascend PARNASSUS together; higher than ever Brothers have climbed before: I might add, each of them to an height which but few have ever reached.'

This praise is quite hyperbolical, and can only heighten the disappointment of the reader who sits down to such lines as the following:

'Silent and motionless the legions stand,
By looks examining each other's heart:
But soon a murmur through the ranks proceeds,
Swelling as quickly a terrific roar;
Like heavy waters breaking from their mounds,
A long, and loud, and inarticulate shout,
While every weapon vibrates in the air,
And hisses it's fierce vengeance at the foe.
'The righteous cause admits of no delay;
No tardy foot impedes the immediate march;
The Enemy, not taken by surprise,
Wak'd by the watchful fears of conscious guilt,
On their frontiers await the coming foe.
'Now at the near approach of threatening Death,
Full many a thinking, sighing, aching heart,
Indulges secretly the hopeless wish
For Life, and Peace....Alas! it cannot be:
To advance is to encounter dreadful danger;
But to recede, inevitable death;
His own associates would deal the blow:
'Thus led by Fate, behold upon the plain,
The adverse bands in view, and in advance.
Now Fear, Self-pity, and affected Courage,
Speak in their hideous shouts with voice scarce human;
Like that which issues from his hollow throat
Who sleeping bellows in a frightful dream.
More near their glaring eye-balls flashing meet;
Terror and Rage distorting every face,
Inflame each other into trembling fury.'

These verses have been selected as a fair specimen; the succeeding passages are apparently more laboured, but not much more happy:

'GUNPOWDER! let the Soldier's Pean rise,
Where e'er thy name or thundering voice is heard;
Let him who, fated to the needful trade,
Deals out the adventitious shafts of Death,
Rejoice in thee; and hail with loudest shouts
The auspicious era when deep-searching Art
From out the hidden things in Nature's store

Cull'd

Cull'd thy tremendous powers, and tutor'd Man
To chain the unruly element of Fire
At his controul, to wait his potent touch:
To urge his missile bolts of sudden Death,
And thunder terribly his vengeful wrath.
Thy mighty engines and gigantic towers
With frowning aspect awe the trembling World.
Destruction, bursting from thy sudden blaze
Hath taught the Birds to tremble at the sound;
And Man himself, thy terror's boasted lord,
Within the blacken'd hollow of thy tube,
Affrighted sees the darksome shades of Death.
Not only mourning groves, but human tears,
The weeping Widow's tears, the Orphan's cries,
Sadly deplore that e'er thy powers were known.
Yet let thy Advent be the Soldier's song,
No longer doom'd to grapple with the Foe
With Teeth and Nails... When close in view, and in
Each-other's grasp, to grin, and hack, and stab;
Then tug his horrid weapon from one breast
To hide it in another —with clear hands
He now expertly poizing thy bright tube,
At distance kills, unknowing and unknown;
Sees not the wound he gives, nor hears the shriek
Of him whose breast he pierces....GUNPOWDER!
(O! let Humanity rejoice) how much
The Soldier's fearful work is humaniz'd,
Since thy momentous birth—stupendous power.'

No candid critic can allow any superior merit to this quotation. What trace of Lucretius can be discovered in such conceits, as '*Destruction bursting from a blaze, to frighten the birds;*' and '*Man, the boasted lord of gunpowder's terror, seeing the shades of death within the hollow of a Gun barrel?*' This and much more should have undergone the pruning-knife. There are, however, passages which merit more indulgence; and such is that which follows the lines just quoted:

'In Britain, where the hills and fertile plains,
Like her historic page, are overspread
With vestiges of War, the Shepherd Boy
Climbs the green hillock to survey his flock;
Then sweetly sleeps upon his favourite hill,
Not conscious that his bed's a Warrior's tomb.'

The poem on Honington Green is even less elegant than the former:

'Thro' the poor Widow's long lonely years,
Her Father supported us all:
Yet sure she was loaded with cares,
Being left with six Children so small.

Meagre

Meagre Want never lifted her latch;
Her cottage was still tight and clean;
And the casement beneath it's low thatch
Commanded a view o'er the Green.'

The Culprit is a composition in short stanzas, which displays the emotions of a Criminal during the interval between the retirement of his jury, and the declaration of their verdict: it is rather prosaic. Some smaller poems conclude the volume, on which we shall forbear to animadvert, since we cannot speak highly in their praise.

It would be unjust to ourselves to dismiss this subject, without adding that we have felt real pain in giving so unfavourable an account of this performance. We pay every possible attention to the feelings of an author so circumstanced as he whose book is now before us: but we cannot forfeit our credit with the public by applauding him. Let him consider that the poet's road to fame is successfully trodden by few; and that men are often unable to command a respectable station in poetry, who possess all the advantages of learned education and powerful connections. It would have been happy for Mr. B., if he had met with a friend of a more difficult taste than his editor: for an admiring judge is more likely to spoil a young poet, than even a captious censor.

ART. VI. *Plan of National Improvement*, pointing out the Means to render Great Britain Independent of Supplies of Corn from Abroad, to extend the British Fisheries, and augment the Military and Naval Strength of the Empire without Expence or Inconvenience to the Public. To which are added Remarks on the several Attempts that have been made to Invade the British Islands; and an Exposition of Bonaparte's grand Project to conquer Great Britain and Ireland: with Observations on the present Invasion of Hanover. 4to. pp. 154. Brunswick. 1803. Budd, London. Price 10s. 6d. Boards.

THIS volume is obviously the production of the same pen which gave to the world the interesting *Sketch of the relative strength of France and Russia*, noticed in our last number, and exhibits similar evidences in support of its claim to a foreign origin. Its inherent qualities, however, are truly British; and though the idiom of its language is not strictly vernacular, the principles which it inculcates, the sentiments which it breathes, and the wishes which it expresses, are of genuine home growth. Objects, like those which this publication seeks to promote, must at all times, and particularly in the present, lay claim to the highest attention; hence it was that we devoted to the author's preceding tract a space rather disproportionate to its size,

size, and that we feel disposed to make a similar deviation in favour of that which now lies before us. In this, as in his other performance, many facts occur which we have not the means of authenticating: but, on the whole, we find him here much more within our cognizance, and we are not altogether without criteria by which we can try his plans and measures. With regard to the importance of the views to which these are to be directed, no doubt can be entertained: but whether they are to be pursued to the extent here proposed, or whether, if so followed up, they would be productive of all the effects here promised, we shall leave to be decided by judges more competent than we are. Of the plans themselves, we think less favourably than of the ends intended to be attained by them; they shew too much of the sanguine confident projector, and betray a want of acquaintance with our existing institutions: but their infelicity little affects the general value of the writer's lucubrations, which disclose a variety of novel facts, furnish hints which eminently merit regard, and abound in such reflections on subjects of high national importance, as cannot fail to excite in intelligent minds useful trains of thought, to direct the inquiries of the less informed, and to rouse the desire of knowlege in the ignorant. His present labours do not yield in interest and value to those which we have already noticed; and we are anxious to draw to them the attention of the public, more particularly of those who study our national interests. We wish most devoutly that other persons equally capable, and equally well informed, would employ their faculties in the same way; since discussions of this kind could not fail to meliorate our internal administration, and to improve our system of external policy.

The preface developes the honourable and patriotic motive from which this publication originated; and the passage in which it is stated contains striking and weighty observations on a very important and much litigated subject:

'I was not one of those who considered the late treaty of 1801 as the death warrant of Old England. A Briton, while he is alive himself, must not believe that any warrant against his country can be executed. But in the arrangement of Amiens, it was impossible not to see, that the honour, rank and safety of the British empire was compromised: by that so called peace, Great Britain was certainly left in a position which no born Englishman could have foreseen, and which every man attached to his country will for ever regret! Insulated by nature from the continental world, that singular compact detached us from all that was respectable in the political world; those sovereigns and princes who had sacrificed their properties and risked their lives in our service abandoned, and (what still more astonished the world) to see England legalize the rebellion, regicide and atrocious assassinations of a French banditti, and then

ratify the usurpations of its chiefs, made all nations forsake our cause, despise our principles, and become inimical to our interests. By the extraordinary concessions which the definitive treaty imposed upon the British government, every one of our remaining settlements abroad, as well as the united kingdom itself, were laid open, exposed and left uncovered to the enterprises of a daring enemy, who by that very deed tripled his own strength. Another remarkable feature in our convention with Bonaparte was, that after an eight years war of victory, after being in legal possession of all the sources of naval power and commercial wealth in the world, and able to maintain them, we quitted the field with no other trophy nor acquisition than a burden of some hundred millions sterling added to the public debt. This last circumstance appeared to me a most serious consideration; it threatened the noble pride and patriotic zeal of the nation with extinction. To maintain the public spirit of a people, nothing is more efficacious than to perpetuate amongst them the memory of their military exploits, especially if refreshed by the enjoyment of the fruits of their valour: but where the veteran is suffered to die in neglected obscurity, and no monument of his actions preserved to warm the bosom of his survivors, *there* laurels never flourish; honours to be won by the soldier's blood are considered not worth the price; military glory becomes an obsolete phrase; and patriotism sours into disgust, avarice and venality. No expense of blood and treasure will ever diminish the ardour or slacken the efforts of an independent nation that is guided by intelligent, brave and moral rulers; but, the price of their blood undervalued, and the fruits of their efforts thrown away, the most energetic people on the globe will soon fall into that political indifference which has made so many states the easy prey of cunning and watchful neighbours.

'To ward off the effects and to prevent the evil consequences which it was predicted the peace of Amiens had entailed upon the British kingdoms, or what is the same thing, to fortify the empire against the accumulated strength and wanton audacity of the French republic; to alleviate the burden of the public expense of the state, and to maintain the natural energy, the zeal and morality of the nation; a bold system of national improvement appeared to me as the most eligible measure that could be adopted. It was this consideration that induced me to draw up the following plan for the encouragement of the British fisheries, with remarks on the general improvement of the united kingdom.'

This language indirectly conveys strong censure on the authors of this ill-fated compact; and indeed it cannot be denied that the hollow and short-lived truce was too dearly purchased by surrenders so important, which should only have been made to secure a peace of some permanence.

Our agriculture is the first object of national improvement which the author discusses, and in treating of which he is the least successful. In order to perfect this branch of our economy, he proposes that two boards should be formed, to be

be invested with very large powers, which would materially interfere with those that are now lodged with our legislative and executive authorities. Of these establishments, it is sufficient for us to say that they appear utterly impracticable. Perhaps, it is chiefly by silent and indirect means that this important department of national industry is to be ameliorated: but something seems wanting to render markets more equable, and the tenure of the cultivator less precarious; to increase the incitements to individual activity, and to remove whatever operates as a check on it.

It is a great object with the author to augment the produce of husbandry; while, by a strange inconsistency, and in opposition to all writers on public economy, he inveighs vehemently against the exportation of corn. He also pleads in favour of the exploded system of public granaries.

Dissenting as we do from many of the opinions maintained by the author in this part of his work, we agree with him in thinking that it would be wise and politic to hold in higher estimation the class of cultivators. He justly observes:

'Men of talents and property endeavour to attach themselves to that profession which is most respected by the public. In the monarchies of continental Europe, as well as in our modern republics, to enjoy any sort of consideration in society, a man must belong either to the military or civil functions of the state, that is, he must be a soldier, secretary, or some such public servant: tradesmen and mechanics are despised; and the husbandman is ranked after his horse. In Great Britain, although that consideration be not shewn to the military which they ought to enjoy in every country where their service is necessary, yet the tillers of the ground are looked upon as the lowest class of the community: merchant-clerks, counter-keepers, and even livery footmen, custom-house and excise-officers, take the lead of the honest ploughman. This prejudice is humiliating to a great majority of our most useful and loyal citizens; it should therefore be done away.'

On the subject of the fisheries, which is the head of improvement most laboured and best elucidated, the author appears to possess very ample information. He satisfactorily sketches the rise, progress, decline, and present state of these institutions among various nations, and describes at some length the manner in which they are actually conducted. The antient Scandinavian fisheries, he remarks, were the nurseries in which were formed those piratical hordes, which were so long the terror and the scourge of the South of Europe. The introduction of Christianity, with its concomitant arts, and especially that of agriculture, rendering these rude tribes less dependent on their former sources of subsistence, occasioned a great relaxation in the pursuit

pursuit of them. The union of Colmar, and the incessant agitations which followed it, reduced them to the lowest state, whence they have but imperfectly emerged. Denmark, we are told, 'although it possesses in exclusive sovereignty the islands of Iceland, Fero, and the Greenland coast of Davis straits, with the immense coast of Norway, yet the fish sold to foreigners and exported from the Danish dominions, do not, upon an average of the last fifty years, exceed the amount of L. 120,000 sterling annually.'

When the Dutch lost their naval preponderancy, the fisheries became unsafe speculations, and were solely on that account abandoned. Such has been their decline of late among that people, that 'upon an average of the last 40 years of peace, the whole of the Dutch fisheries on the coasts of Greenland, Iceland, Shetland, and in the North sea, did not employ above 27,000 tons of shipping annually, (instead of 150,000 tons as in the 16th century); the produce during these forty years has scarcely been sufficient for the internal consumption of the country.' The author therefore regards the present moment as propitious to adventures in this line; and he calculates that, if his hints are improved, and his counsels followed, Great Britain may annually take and cure more than half a million of barrels of cod-fish, and three times that number of barrels of herrings: the markets for which are here pointed out. Doubtless, the field which he assigns for these adventures is ample enough to yield the immense return on which he reckons; for according to him,

'By the geographical situation of the British islands, the fisheries in the northern seas are our hereditary patrimony. Sovereign of the northern part of America—from Sable cape in Nova Scotia, by Scilly point and Orfordness to Heilgeland, and from that line to the frozen ocean, the sea is under our immediate jurisdiction; and the fish contained in it, allowing the natural rights of Denmark, is our property. No other nation has any more legal pretension to fish north of that line, than we have to fish in the Zuyder Zee or in the Gulph of Bothnia.

'Without entering into a calculation upon the annual value of every cubic acre of the sea that surrounds the British coasts, I may venture to affirm, that the space which I have here mentioned, as being under the natural jurisdiction of Great Britain, is in point of produce the most valuable division of the ocean. Nature, for her own wise reasons, has made these northern seas the native climate and habitation of the most numerous and valuable tribes of the fish kind. This grand nursery seems to have been from the earliest times a principal support to those nations that inhabited the sea coasts of northern Europe.'

Among the stations for taking the cod-fish, he considers those of Peterhead, and of the Shetland and Lewis islands, as the most eligible *.

Of the herring fishery, he says: 'I recommend it to be carried on in the deep sea, in proper vessels built for that purpose. I would likewise recommend, to fish on the skirts of the great herring shoals rather than on the middle of them; the fish that precede and as it were accompany the shoal, are infinitely better than those that are crammed into it.'

He suggests various hints for the improvement of the Greenland whale fishery, of which he gives a very detailed account: but he seems to consider that which we carry on in the Southern sea as entirely dependent on our ability to make head against France; and this also will, in his opinion, be determined by the degree in which we cultivate the fisheries of which he has treated. If these are followed up with spirit and judgment, they will employ 50,000 sailors, cause foreign wealth to flow into the country, animate our internal industry, and materially add to our stock of wholesome and grateful food; while indirectly they will prove the bulwark of our political rank, and of our national independence. He proposes that these fisheries should be placed under the management of a corporation, which should be enabled to raise a capital of two millions and a half; and his own views of the valuable ends to be attained by such an institution are thus disclosed:

'The several nations of Europe have long been obliged to maintain their respective ranks by military force; the present state of the civilized world holds out no visible prospect that any other sort of security is yet likely to be effectual; on the contrary, whoever possesses the greatest proportion of military force assumes an authority to legislate for his neighbours. Great Britain is now an insulated state; other nations seem to take no interest in her prosperity; she must stand by her own strength; and to stand, the basis of the empire must be fortified within by internal improvement, and they must be kept covered without by a preponderant marine. I have said before, that the invasion of Great Britain and Ireland is determined upon by the rulers of France; they believe it to be easily practicable, and as soon as they can muster a sufficient number of light vessels and row-boats to carry over an army, they will make an attempt; whether we be then at war or in peace with France matters not, the probability of subjugating the British nation is at all times a legitimate cause for quarrel. To frustrate and set at defiance this project of our neigh-

* We are happy to observe that a cod-fishery off the coast of Ireland, on which subject we have lately introduced several pamphlets to our readers, is begun to be established; and that cargoes have already reached the London market.

Bears,

bours, it is high time that the British government were preparing efficacious means: as is already observed, our heavy navy, however numerous, cannot prevent an invasion by row-boats; but 50,000 British sailors daily employed in our fisheries in the British seas, if they did not prevent an attempt being made, they would at all events render its success for ever impossible. The British fishery corporation should therefore be so organized as to form a permanent part of our national defence. The men employed in the fisheries would contribute to the defence and security of the empire in more respects than one; in active occupation they would always be healthy, moral and brave; the fruits of their labour would in the mean time be rearing up another generation of vigorous youths to succeed them; catching fish in the British seas, they would appear equally formidable to our neighbours as if they were on board the royal navy at Spithead, in reality they would be more formidable to the enemy, and more useful to their country; and whatever the general success of the cod and herring fisheries might be, their produce would certainly add a considerable increase to the annual stock of the necessaries of life. Upon an abundance of the necessaries of common life, depends much of our national strength: our enemies look for a scarcity of provisions in England with the most sanguine anxiety; and the moment that such a disaster takes place we shall have to fight their legions upon legions at our own gates. To be obliged to wage a defensive war is a terrible consideration; to prevent the possibility of such a misfortune no sacrifice can be too great. Fifty thousand British sailors, daily employed in the British fisheries, would prevent it; by their industry provisions would always be plenty; their valour would bridle the audacity and confound the plots of our boasting foes; and they would form an effectual circumvallation around the kingdom *; that is, a grand national fishery raised and extended hand in hand with a spirited improvement of the other natural sources of our public strength, would prevent for ever the possibility of invasion or danger from abroad; and would likewise secure and consolidate the domestic peace and prosperity of the nation.'

It is a circumstance very much in favour of the establishments here recommended, that they existed in Holland for two hundred and fifty years, to as great an extent as that which this author proposes; and, if this fact be duly considered, they cannot be regarded as chimerical projects, the creatures of a heated brain.

We do not find fault with the sentiment repeated in the following extract, and which is frequently inculcated by the author in the present and in his former work: but we could have

* 'Vessels built for the cod and herring fisheries might be so constructed as to carry two or more guns each. In case of public danger 1000 or 1200 such vessels, being always equipt and ready, would form a flottilla far superior to any armament of that sort which our neighbours could ever send to sea.'

wished that he had informed the country more precisely how it can act up to his advice:

'We all know (he says) that certain powers do intend to invade this country, and perhaps sooner than the public expect, if efficacious measures are not taken to frustrate their views. That we should beat an invading army is very probable; I hope we would to a certainty beat any force that could be brought against us; but an army once landed, to beat it could not fail to cost us a very considerable expence of both men and property. For my own part there is no sacrifice that I would not advise the nation to make, rather than risk the most distant possibility of a defensive war on our own territories. I do not mean that we should sacrifice any thing to an enemy, that would render our subjugation more and more certain, but if necessary we should expend the moveable property of the kingdom, and our dearest blood, rather than suffer the independence of the state to become problematical. When a nation tamely waits till it be forced to fight on its own territories, the independence of the state will be very uncertain.'

The writer is of opinion that the attention of the national councils, and of public men in this country, is generally misdirected; and that the few public works, of which it can boast, furnish the melancholy proof of this charge:

'The British parliament has, in the space of these last hundred years, voted away upwards of five hundred millions of British money, without having thereby added an inch of territory to the empire, a hundred pounds to the public revenue, nor an atom to our political rank.—

'If we have during the last century extended our maritime trade, and increased our manufactures, these have been done by improving the sources we already possessed, for we have made no useful acquisitions; we have expended 500 millions merely to defend what we had; and in a political sense, we are not at this time so powerful as we were a hundred years ago. Let us now, instead of expending millions upon millions in cultivating the colonies of France and of her dependents, only lay out, upon the best of all security, and on certain interest, that is upon the improvement of the soil of the united kingdom, and to extend and improve the British fisheries, only *eight millions sterling*, and in less than twenty years we shall double the internal strength of the state, and affirm the permanency of the empire.'

The author's lucubrations on the threatened invasion are divided into two parts; the one bearing the date of July 1803, and the other that of September. Among the former invasions of this country, he finds nothing which so strongly resembles that which is at present projected, as the maritime part of the expedition of the Prince of Orange; and he recommends it to government to peruse the accounts of the measures and manœuvres which preceded the sailing of that armament, as not dissimilar to those which are now practised against us. He

will

will not admit the claims to originality affected by the *héros de fortune*; 'the politics, as well as the court of St. Cloude, are merely ostentatious mimicries of those of Versailles: to point at one ball and hit another, was the game of the French monarchy, of the revolution, and it is Bonaparte's play likewise. The real objects of the consul's armaments are Ireland and our finances. These he believes possible, and he will use all the means he commands to reduce the one and ruin the other.'

We may almost suspect that none of Bonaparte's counsellors are so well acquainted with his projects, as the details here confidently given manifest the author to be:

'With the Schelde division of his armament, the consul general intends to menace London on the coast of Essex, where he will threaten to land 40,000 men; with the Cherbourg division he will threaten Dorset and Devonshire, at the same time ordering a squadron round the land's end to menace with an invasion Somersetshire and the neighbouring country. With his centre, or Boulogne division, he will attempt to land at Rye, or between there and Pevensey, with, as will be given out, 100,000 men. Such is the ostensible part of Bonaparte's plan; and while he is employing the powers of France, the vigilance and gold of England, and the attention of Europe, with his manœuvres for its execution, he will endeavour to land 40,000 of his best veteran troops in Ireland.

'In the opinion of the consul, the possession of Ireland is the shortest and most certain preliminary step towards the conquest of England. If he can land the army that he has designed for Ireland, he is perfectly convinced that the immediate submission of that country would be the result; he has already upon his muster-roll upwards of two hundred thousand sturdy Irishmen whom he believes ready to join his standard; and he has numbers of people who assure him, that every man able to carry arms in Ireland, will instantaneously, and with that enthusiasm which vengeance inspires, cordially join and co-operate with the armies of the republic to conquer Great Britain.

'The real plan of Bonaparte at this moment, is therefore the invasion of Ireland from Brest. To facilitate that expedition he will certainly attempt to invade England, but not with the force we read of in his daily newspapers, nor with hopes of any conspicuous success. But should he succeed in Ireland, he will then put himself at the head of two hundred thousand, or perhaps more men, and make a serious effort to land on the coast of Sussex: that coast, or between Rye and Pevensey, is the point on which the consul believes an invasion might be made with the greatest probability of success.'

Speaking of the Consul's channel flotillas, the author says; 'he cannot, for these eight months to come, have them prepared, so as to be in any wise formidable to us: that is, except some ridiculous panic unnerve the nation, or an unpardonable neglect expose the coasts uncovered, all the force that France

can send across the channel before August next year, cannot be such as to create any serious cause of alarm in England. Usurpers have no other security for their crowns but success: to Bonaparte, a check would be imminently dangerous, and a defeat, especially if it happened in England, would be his inevitable ruin. He cannot therefore risk his reputation, the only support of his throne, but upon such an expedition, which if we do our duty he will never be able to organize.' This, he observes, affords no ground for a relaxation of vigilance and preparation on the part of the British government.

The writer assures us that the wishes of neighbouring powers are strongly on our side; and that, if the Corsican hero be bold enough to invade our territory, Europe fully expects that Britain will triumph in the contest, and retaliate on the chief and his legions the wrongs of nations. This is pleasing intelligence; to which we should not for a moment have hesitated to give credit, had we not heard of very different accounts having been transmitted through various channels. We trust that time, the firm attitude which we have assumed, and the violences of the chief consul, have wrought a change in our favour, and that the assurances of the author are worthy of reliance.

'Should the chief consul really attempt to invade Great Britain with the force that he pretends to be preparing for that expedition, the rest of Europe will rejoice at the news of his landing. Every sovereign on the continent knows, that until the arms of Bonaparte meet with a check and be beaten, no legitimate government can be in safety, nor can any country be considered as enjoying peace and independency; amongst themselves to check his career seems difficult, not from any superiority on the part of the French arms, but owing to some malignant demon of discord that seems to have destroyed mutual confidence, and to have inspired all governments with a spirit of counter action towards one another; but once landed with his legions in England, there is not an European but firmly believes that there, the consul, the consulate, (and perhaps the republic) would find the well merited fruits of all their toil, and leave the world at rest. "*Conjurationem, eodem momento, et conjuratos submersit.*"—

'Upon the great question of Britain's political existence, every sovereign in Europe considers the interests of his own country as interwoven with the security of the British empire. No prince was ever more revered by foreign powers than George III. is at this moment; and never had Great Britain such an opportunity to consolidate her empire upon her own powers, and to secure for ever the cordial friendship of all other nations, as she has at this propitious juncture.'

There is something so original and liberal in the scheme of external policy suggested by the author, that it is but justice

to

to him to submit it to the reader in his own words. Speaking of this country, he says;

'Having it in her power, it is a duty she owes to the rest of the world to bridle this audacious republic of military adventurers; and it is likewise her duty, her interest, and it would be her everlasting glory, to extend the benefits of maritime commerce, upon the most liberal principles, to every state and nation that borders on the sea. If we except France, that wishes to have the sea as well as the land to herself, every nation that have any interest upon the ocean are our friends and wellwishers; and as their interests in maritime affairs increase, so doth necessarily their goodwill and attachment to us. Jealousy in trade is a miserable consideration; it is detrimental to the interests of all parties, and does good to no body. When a nation is already by usurpation and conquest become too formidable to other states, and still endeavours by new acquisitions of colonies and empires abroad, to subjugate all her neighbours at home, it is indeed time to be jealous, and to set barriers to her projects; but France is the only nation in Europe, or out of it, that ever can become in anywise formidable to either the commerce or maritime power of Great Britain. By encouraging the maritime trade and naval power of such other states as are fairly independent of the republic, we fortify ourselves and promote our own commercial interests.'

'I have no hesitation in saying, that if Great Britain will preserve her independency, she must secure her maritime empire upon a basis of a more solid nature than ships and manufactures. At this propitious moment the British government has two legal choices; these are, to put the nation in possession of sources sufficient to maintain for ever a navy superior to the present or future maritime force of the world; or to distribute the sources of maritime trade in such a manner, that France (the only state that ever can be our rival on the ocean) shall never be able, neither by her own force, nor through her continental influence over other powers, to raise or combine a navy equal to that of Great Britain. Our present possessions, *were they all secure*, are not near to the standard which our relative situation between Europe and America requires. Besides, *possessions that are, or that can ever become dependent upon the good will of other states are not secure.*'

If we are united among ourselves, he assures us that the physical and moral powers of the French republic can never be a subject of uneasiness to us.

'It is true, the public spirit of continental Europe is broken down and perverted to a most alarming degree; so much so, that were Bonaparte's night-cap now carried about, if only upon the end of a broom-stick, it would inspire terror and submission; but Britons are yet far above the level of such dastard and venal cowardice. The three coloured cockade legions are by no means superior to other men; wherever they have been fairly tried they have been found as little as the least of their antagonists: the republican chiefs do not even pretend to confide in their valour; on the contrary, they rely upon that which in all ages has ever been considered the most

despicable resource, their numbers, and our want of skill. These heroes have the base absurdity to menace the world, not with their soldiers, but with their hordes! Are Englishmen to be alarmed by cowards of French republicans? Every honest hearted Briton will hear with a smile of indifference the bravados of chiefs capable of boasting in what any other military man of honour would consider mean and degrading.'—

'Upon the whole, the dangers that we have to apprehend from an invasion of Frenchmen at this moment, are by no means such as to warrant any serious alarm in the country: if off our guard, however, they might do much mischief; but otherwise their efforts will be easily rendered abortive. The genius and politics of Bonaparte are of a first rate kind where he meets with ignorance, venality, and discord; his ragged legions are formidable to timidity and cowardice; but in themselves, neither his talents nor their valour will ever be feared, nor esteemed in England. As I have said before, the present is the most propitious juncture that ever occurred in the history of Great Britain: we have it in our power, not only to frustrate the present projects of France upon these kingdoms, but likewise to deprive her of the means of ever again attempting to molest our peace. Should it be thought necessary, we can confine the republic with all her dependent allies to Europe for ever; we may raise and attach to our trident all the other maritime states of the world, not as vassals and dependents, but as cordial friends, whose national interests may be closely connected with our prosperity; and we may now consolidate the powers and affirm the integrity of the British empire upon a broad and lasting basis.'

He strongly reprobates the plan of erecting military works around London, and that of entrusting the conduct of our armed force to a military committee. These are measures, he says, which Bonaparte would wish us to adopt. 'What the French are apprehensive of meeting with on the British shores, are, light vessels armed with heavy metal, small works at proper stations, inundations where such are possible, trenches and palisades on the great roads, passes and avenues; these they know, if well distributed and bravely defended, would for ever baffle the efforts of the consulate with all their Gallic slaves.'

The positions advanced in the following passages are so important and consoling, as to induce us to lay them before the reader, clothed in the confident language of the author himself:

'To shut the ports of Europe against the British flag, was the pitiful invention of the ignorant agents of a still more ignorant directory; and the same measure being adopted by Bonaparte, strongly illustrates the profundity of that general's mercantile politics.—But could it be presumed that every port and creek between Nova Zembla and Madagascar were to be shut against the British flag, what benefit could that produce to France, or what inconvenience would it create to Great Britain? Except the British government should think proper to blockade those ports herself, our commerce would suffer no diminution:

minution: on the contrary, in all such cases the demand for British manufactures increases immensely. As if from the novelty of the circumstance, wherever our flag is now and then shut out, foreigners supply its place with extraordinary activity; add to this, that war opens the barriers of all countries, especially those of France, to mercantile speculation; and that, when the French armies are without the frontiers of France, a great part of the pillage they gather is paid for English wares; for, from the general in chief to the youngest conscript, they have a certain vanity in buying whatever is English. So that in fact, by shutting the ports of Europe against the British flag, Bonaparte opens the markets of Europe, especially those of France, to the manufactures of Great Britain.'

He disapproves the blockade of the Elbe and Weser, and advises government to declare all sea ports, and maritime flags, except those of the enemy, open and free; in which case, 'our trade would double, our friends encrease, and our manufactures would flourish to the confusion of the consumate. If Bonaparte should still attempt to debar the produce of Great Britain and her colonies from continental Europe, he would be obliged to quarrel with the neutral states himself, instead of making us quarrel with them.' The object here recommended is doubtless above all price, but how is it to be effected? The author repeatedly urges it on us, but, as we have already stated, no where instructs us in the mode by which it may be executed. He does indeed elsewhere observe, that 'situated as we are, some grand blow announced to the nation would do much good; it would invigorate the public mind and dispel all sort of anxiety; it would inspire our friends with confidence in our measures, and make them approach us more cordially:' but of what nature this grand blow is to be, he has no where given the slightest information.—He concludes with recommending

'That the OBJECTS of the war, and the CONDITIONS on which ALONE peace will be made, should be laid before the public and the world. Were the objects found to be such as could interest and affirm the public confidence of the nation, government would be instantaneously enabled to realize them: dangers, difficulties, the powers of the enemy, were they seconded by the rest of the world, would vanish and disappear before the noble ardour with which such a measure would inspire the British public. If the conditions offered for peace were loyal, liberal, and fair, and such as the world could consider a sufficient pledge for the stability of the British empire, every legitimate sovereign, prince, and state, would again feel their own worth; they would shake off the bonds of Gallican oppression, and rally around the Christian standard of our most venerated and virtuous monarch, GEORGE III.'

For the short paragraph which immediately follows the above extract, and which closes this head of the work, nothing that

before

before occurs sufficiently prepares us; and we own that it would appall us, were we to learn that the extravagant sentiment here stated was that on which our rulers acted, in the conduct of the portentous contest in which we are engaged. 'But,' says the writer, 'the safety of the monarchy, the dignity of the crown, the honour of the British nation, and the sentiments of its sovereign, cannot now allow the pretensions, propositions, or even the submission of rebels, assassins, and usurpers, to be either received, heard, or answered.'

Many of the author's concluding remarks on the campaign in Hanover are not less curious than those which we have noticed: but we have already exceeded our limits, and we must content ourselves with giving only one specimen of them.

'It is very certain, that in planing the invasion of Hanover, Bonaparte calculated upon making that country the seat of the war. He thought he would draw over and occupy there any number of British troops he might think proper; that he would thereby exhaust the British army, drain the treasury, and fatigue the people of England.

'Should Great Britain send no army to the continent of Europe, nor yet be alarmed at the thousands and four thousands of paper gunboats painted in the Moniteur, the consul will be much disappointed: all his plans will be useless, his speculations will be frustrated; and, if our armies be otherwise well employed, the consulate itself may become bankrupt.'

In dismissing this work, we shall only add that, if the judgment of the author should not always be followed, his information appears to be extensive, though we do not presume to ascertain how far it may be authentic; if he be rather sanguine and confident, it cannot be denied that he possesses a vigorous and energetic mind; and if he be a harsh and ungracious counsellor, his ardent patriotism, his honest zeal, his British prepossessions and partialities, dispose us to overlook his rudeness, and to lend him willing attention.

ART. VII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1803. Part I. 4to. sewed. Nicol.

MATHEMATICS *and* ASTRONOMY.

The Bakerian Lecture. Observations on the Quantity of Horizontal Refraction; with a Method of measuring the Dip at Sea. By Wm. Hyde Wollaston, M.D. F.R.S.

IN the Transactions for the year 1800, the author of this paper assigned mathematically and physically the cause of the double and inverted images of objects near the level of land or water; and to establish farther the justness of his explanation,

planation, he made some very simple but ingenious experiments, by which appearances similar to those seen in nature might be exhibited. Connected with this subject, are the researches of the present memoir. Investigating on the ground of speculation the cause of a phænomenon, Dr. W. brought also into his view the practical benefit which nautical astronomy might derive from a knowlege of the laws of that phænomenon. The refractions near the surface of the sea must affect the dip of the apparent horizon; and if any law could be established between the quantity of refraction and the temperature of the air, then the correction of the dip might be known by the aid of meteorological instruments. The investigations of Dr. W., however, as far as they go, indicate no law of dependence between the temperature and the quantity of refraction: but the experiments themselves are interesting, and similar trials may easily be made. Those of the author were performed on the river Thames, in consequence of his having once accidentally observed that the oars of barges approaching him appeared bent in various degrees, according to their distance.

'When I reflected (says the Doctor) upon the causes which were probably instrumental in the production of these phenomena, they appeared referrible to difference of temperature alone. After a succession of weather so hot that the thermometer, during one month preceding, had been 12 times above 80°, and on an average of the month at 68°, the evening of that day (August 22, 1800) was unusually cold, the thermometer being 55°. The water might be supposed to retain the temperature it had acquired during a few weeks preceding, and, by warming the stratum of air immediately contiguous to it, might cause a diminution of its refractive density, sufficient to effect this inverted curvature of the rays of light, in the manner formerly explained. As I was at that time unprovided with instruments of any kind, I had it not in my power to estimate the quantity of refraction, or temperatures; and can only say that, to my hand, the water felt in an uncommon degree warmer than the air.

'Being thus furnished with an unexpected field for observation, I from that time took such opportunities as similar changes of the weather afforded me, of examining and measuring the quantities of refraction that might be discovered by the same means over another part of the river, that I found most suited to my convenience.

'The situation from which the greater part of my observations were made, was at the SE corner of Somerset house. The view from this spot extends under Blackfriars bridge, towards London bridge, upwards of a mile in length, and in the opposite direction through Westminster bridge, which is three quarters of a mile distant.'

Dr. W. then gives a table of 16 observations, in which are registered the quantities of refraction, the corresponding tem-

peratures of the air and water, the cold produced by evaporation, and the state of the hygrometer.

'From a review (says Dr. W.) of the preceding Table, it will be found, upon the whole, that when the water is warmer than the air, some increase of depression of the horizon may be expected; but that its quantity will be greatly influenced, and in general diminished, by dryness of the atmosphere.'

Although, however, no easy law can be found to exist between the quantity of refraction and the contemporaneous temperature, and therefore no calculated correction can be offered for the dip of the apparent horizon; yet it is clear that a correction ought to be made; and Dr. W. shews how it may be practically effected by Hadley's quadrant. We relate his method in his own words:

'By the back observation, the whole vertical angle between any two opposite points of the horizon may be measured at once, either before or after taking an altitude. Half the excess of this angle above 180°, should of course be the dip required.

'But, if it be doubtful whether the instrument is duly adjusted, a second observation becomes necessary. The instrument must be reversed, and, if the apparent deficiency of the opposite angle from 180° be not equal to the excess before obtained, the index error may then be corrected accordingly; and, since the want of adjustment, either of the glasses at right angles to the plane of the instrument, or of the line of sight parallel to it, will affect both the larger and smaller angle very nearly in an equal degree, the ¼ part of their difference will be extremely near the truth, and the errors arising from want of those adjustments may with safety be neglected.

'This method of correcting the index error for the back observation at sea, was many years since recommended by Mr. Ludlam*; yet I do not find that it has been noticed by subsequent writers on that subject, or suggested by any one for determining the dip; but I can discover no reason for which it could be rejected as fallacious, and I should hope that in practice it would be found convenient, since in theory it appears to be effectual.

'The most obvious objection to this, as well as to Mr. Huddart's method, is the possibility that the refraction may be in some measure different in opposite points of the horizon at the same time. When land is at no great distance, such an inequality may be found to occur; but, upon the surface of the ocean in general, any partial variations of temperature can rarely be supposed to exist; and it is probable, that under any circumstances, the difference will not bear any considerable proportion to the whole refraction; nor can it be thought a sufficient reason for rejecting one correction proposed, that there may yet remain other smaller errors, to which all methods are equally liable, but which it is not the object of the present dissertation to rectify.'

'* Directions for the Use of Hadley's Quadrant, 1771. § 82, p. 56.'

After

After this account of the present paper, it is superfluous to recommend it to the notice of the philosophic inquirer.

Observations of the Transit of Mercury over the Disk of the Sun: to which is added, an Investigation of the Causes which often prevent the proper Action of Mirrors. By Wm. Herschell, LL.D. F.R.S.—These observations contain the notice of all the phænomena which attended the passage of Mercury over the Sun's disk: but they occupy only a small part of the memoir, which is chiefly occupied by the remarks concerning the action of mirrors. These are stated in Dr. H.'s usual journal form; and from them it is inferred that neither moist nor moderately foggy weather is unfavourable to observations: that frosts also are not unfavourable, but only the beginnings and ends of frosts: in fine, Dr. H. concludes that it is the change of temperature solely which causes disturbed vision; and that telescopes will act properly when they are of the same temperature as the circumambient air. This conclusion is made more satisactory by experiments; as, for example, he placed heated bodies near his speculums, and the consequences invariably were confused images. He does not propose any certain remedies for the suspension of the proper action of mirrors, yet such are desirable, since it may be necessary to make observations during the changes of temperature.—It is evident, from what has been said, that a telescope carried from a warm room into the cold air is unfit for immediate use.

Chemistry, Medicine, Mineralogy, &c.

A Chemical Analysis of some Calamines. By James Smithson, Esq. F.R.S.—Calamines have been considered by many as simple calces of zinc, containing no carbonic acid, and owing their occasional effervescence with acids to an accidental admixture of carbonate of lime: but the present author's experiments on different species of them shew, that the analysis of these substances has been hitherto little understood. His observations were directed to calamines from Bleyberg in Carinthia, Somersetshire, and Derbyshire, and to the electrical calamine.—The first species contained

Calx of lime	0.714
Carbonic acid	0.135
Water	0.151
	1.000

besides a minute portion of the carbonates of lead and lime, which seemed to be an accidental admixture. The calamine from Somersetshire consisted of

Carbonic acid	0.352
Calx of lime	0.648
	1.000

The Derbyshire calamine, of

Carbonic acid	0.348
Calx of lime	0.654
	1.000

Electrical calamine, from Regbania in Hungary, afforded

Quartz	0.250
Calx of lime	0.683
Water	0.044
	0.977
Loss	0.023
	1.000

In the electrical calamine, the author conceives that the water, from the smallness of its quantity, is not an essential ingredient, and may therefore be disregarded: but, in the first mentioned, (that from Bleyberg,) he is induced to conclude that, as there is too large a quantity of water to exist in the state of mere moisture or dampness, and too small a quantity of carbonic acid to saturate the whole of the calx of zinc which it contained, a more intimate combination subsists between the water and zinc than has hitherto been suspected. This peculiar compound, he thinks, may with propriety be termed *hydrate of lime*: and, from calculations, he supposes that it consists of calx of zinc $\frac{1}{3}$, and water or rather ice $\frac{2}{3}$. Hence he infers that the Bleyberg calamine is composed of

Carbonate of zinc	$\frac{2}{3}$
Hydrate of zinc	$\frac{1}{3}$

Calculating from some of the experiments made in this paper, Mr. Smithson considers vitriol of zinc in an acid state, or freed from any portion of combined water, as consisting of exactly equal parts of lime and vitriolic acid.

Experiments on the Quantity of Gases absorbed by Water, at different Temperatures, and under different Pressures. By Mr. Wm. Henry.—The first section of this paper is occupied by experiments on the quantity of gases absorbed by water at the usual pressure of the atmosphere. The results were considerably affected by the temperature at which the experiments were made; and in the trials with carbonic acid gas, the absorption seemed (as Mr. Dalton suggested to the author) to be always

always materially influenced by the proportion of common air contained in the unabsorbed residuum. A certain quantity of common air always exists in carbonic acid gas, or is communicated to it by the water to be impregnated; notwithstanding any degree of care which may have been taken to free the latter from air by long continued boiling, or by exposure to the air-pump. In order, therefore, to obtain the highest degree of saturation, it is necessary that a large proportion of carbonic acid gas should be employed, by which means the quantity of common air in the unabsorbed residuum will be proportionally small. The trials with the less absorbable gases were made with water at one temperature, viz. 60°.

The second section treats on the influence of pressure in promoting the absorption of gases; and the author's deductions are these:

'The results of a series of at least fifty experiments, on carbonic acid, sulphuretted hydrogen gas, nitrous oxide, oxygenous and azotic gases, with the above apparatus, establish the following general law: *that, under equal circumstances of temperature, water takes up, in all cases, the same volume of condensed gas as of gas under ordinary pressure.* But, as the spaces occupied by every gas are inversely as the compressing force, it follows, *that water takes up, of gas condensed by one, two, or more additional atmospheres, a quantity which ordinarily compressed, would be equal to twice, thrice, &c. the volume absorbed under the common pressure of the atmosphere.* By frequent repetition of the experiments, I obtained results differing a little from the general principle above stated; but, for all practical purposes, I apprehend, the law has been announced with sufficient accuracy*.'

Mr. H. has given a description, illustrated by a plate, of the apparatus which he used in his experiments.

Observations on the chemical Nature of the Humours of the Eye. By Richard Chenevix, Esq., F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.—The subject of this communication is illustrated by experiments which were principally made on the eyes of sheep. The aqueous humour was found by the author to be of the specific gravity of 10090, and to be composed of water, albumen, gelatine, and muriate of soda. The vitreous humour in no way differed, either in specific gravity or chemical nature, from the aqueous. The specific gravity of the crystalline was 11000. It contained a smaller proportion of water, but a much larger of

* 'That the facts did not, with invariable accuracy, correspond to the law, was perhaps, in part, owing to the addition of only 28 inches of pressure; when, in strictness, 29½ should have been used, or twice the elevation of the mercury in the barometer, during each experiment.'

albumen

albumen and gelatine, than either the aqueous or the vitreous. Hence Mr. C. accounts for its greater liability to morbid alterations.

The humours of the human eye afforded the same results as the eyes of sheep: but, in the former, the specific gravity of the aqueous and vitreous humours was 10053, and of the crystalline 10790. In the eyes of oxen, those proportions were 10088 and 10765, and the density of the crystalline gradually increased from the circumference to the centre. In this part of his paper, Mr. C. remarks:

'What is particularly worthy of notice is, that the difference which appears to exist between the specific gravity of the aqueous or vitreous humour and that of the crystalline, is much greater in the human eye than in that of sheep, and less in the eye of the ox. Hence it would appear, that the difference between the density of the aqueous and vitreous humour and that of the crystalline, is in the inverse ratio of the diameter of the eye, taken from the cornea to the optic nerve. Should further experiments show this to be a universal law in nature, it will not be possible to deny that it is in some degree designed for the purpose of promoting distinct vision.'

Experiments and Observations on the various Alloys, on the specific Gravity, and on the comparative wear of Gold. Being the Substance of a Report made to the Right Hon. the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council, appointed to take into Consideration the State of the Coins of this Kingdom, and the present Establishment of His Majesty's Mint. By Charles Hatchett, Esq. F.R.S. —We have here a very elaborate memoir, containing a detail of the experiments made by the author and Mr. Cavendish, in consequence of their being requested by a Committee of the Privy Council to examine whether any of the defects really existed, which were supposed to give rise to the loss which the gold coin appeared to have sustained by wear, within certain periods. We learn, however, that, though these two gentlemen were associated in this important investigation, the whole of the experiments were made by the former: but Mr. Hatchett very handsomely acknowleges the important assistance which he derived both from the advice of Mr. Cavendish and from some inventions tending to facilitate the inquiry.

The questions to be principally decided were,

'1st. Whether very soft and ductile gold, or gold made as hard as is compatible with the process of coining, suffers the most by wear, under the various circumstances of friction to which coin is subjected in the course of circulation?

'2dly. Whether coin with a flat, smooth, and broad surface, wears less than coin which has certain protuberant parts raised above the ground or general level of the pieces?'

As

As the wear of coin, however, is 'an effect produced by mechanical causes, subject to be modified by certain physical properties, such as ductility and hardness, which vary in degree, according to the chemical effects produced by different metallic substances, when employed in certain proportions as alloys;' Mr. H. deems it proper

'First, to examine the effects which the various metals produce upon gold, when combined with it in given proportions, beginning with $\frac{1}{12}$, which is the standard proportion of alloy, and in certain cases gradually decreasing to $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain in the ounce Troy, or $\frac{1}{1920}$ part of the mass.

'Secondly, to examine the specific gravity of gold differently alloyed, and the causes of certain variations to which it is liable.

'And, thirdly, to ascertain the effects of friction variously modified.'

The first section, therefore, treats *on the various alloys of Gold.*

Arsenic, in the state of vapor, readily combined with gold and rendered it brittle; even when the latter was raised only to a common red heat. When it was completely melted, and pure metallic arsenic added, the whole being rapidly stirred and poured out, the union of a portion of the latter was found to have taken place: but if even a very short delay intervened, the whole of the arsenic was volatilized.—Red hot plates of standard gold, the alloy of which was copper, when exposed to the fumes of arsenic in close vessels, were affected on the surface by this substance: but the compound was immediately dissolved, and formed a button at the bottom of the crucible, which was externally of a gold but internally of a grey colour.

Antimony, in the quantity of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain to an ounce, or $\frac{1}{1920}$ of the whole mass, was capable of destroying the ductility of gold; and, like arsenic, it could unite with that metal when applied to it in close or even in open vessels.

Zinc diminished the ductility of gold; it united with it in small portions, but was in general easily separated. The attraction seemed strongest when it was united to gold in its mixture with copper, under the form of brass.

Cobalt imparted a yellowish colour and slight brittleness to gold. *Bismuth*, under all circumstances, readily combined with it, and seemed to be most exceedingly injurious to its ductility.

The compound of *Manganese* and gold was slightly ductile, and had a coarse spongy and reddish grey fracture.

Lead in very small quantities proved extremely destructible of the ductility of gold, and when in a certain proportion rendered it as brittle as glass.

Tin was formerly supposed to produce nearly the same effect: but this idea is contradicted by the author's experiments, and those of Mr. Bingley, the Assay-master at the Mint. The conjecture is thought to have originated from the tin employed being blended with a minute portion of zinc, antimony, bismuth, or lead; all of which are eminent for diminishing the ductility of gold.

The same notion was extended to the effects of *Iron* on gold, but was also found to be erroneous. Gold becomes harder by this combination, but still remains ductile; the colour, a pale yellowish grey.

No means employed by the author could make *Emery* unite with gold.

The experiments with *Platina* it was not deemed necessary to prolong, because the nature of the combinations of gold with this metal is sufficiently well known. Gold made standard with platina was very ductile, and of a dusky white, like tarnished silver; and when to this compound another alloy of copper was added, the metal was less ductile, and of a pale dull yellow.

Pure *Copper*, when employed as an alloy for gold, did not much affect its ductility: but it was found that the former differed very materially in its properties, without its appearance being altered; and that the quantity necessary as an alloy sometimes rendered the compound brittle, particularly when the alloyed mass was cast in sand, instead of iron. Mr. H. imagines that this difference of properties was produced by a small addition of the ores of lead or antimony; and this opinion he is the more inclined to adopt, from ascertaining that a smaller quantity of these last metals, than is necessary to affect the appearance of copper, is able completely to destroy the ductility of gold.

The alloys of gold with pure *Silver* are so generally known, that they did not form one of the objects of this investigation.

In order to determine the comparative loss sustained by the volatilization or oxydation of various metallic substances, when added to gold during a state of fusion, and when the heat was continued in open vessels, several experiments were made; which gave the following result, the proportions of the alloy being 9 dwts. 10 gr., to 5 oz. 10 dwts. 14 gr. of gold.

'Fine gold, gold alloyed with silver, gold alloyed with copper, and gold alloyed with tin, did not suffer any loss during the experiment.

'Moreover, gold alloyed with lead only lost three grains, chiefly by vitrification.

'Gold alloyed with iron lost 12 grains, which formed scoria.

'Gold

'Gold alloyed with bismuth also lost 12 grains, chiefly by vitrification.

'Gold alloyed with antimony lost the same quantity, partly by volatilization, and partly by vitrification.

'Gold alloyed with zinc lost one pennyweight, by volatilization. And,

'Gold alloyed with arsenic, not only lost the whole quantity of alloy, but also two grains of the gold, which were carried off in consequence of the rapid volatilization of the arsenic.'

From the whole of the experiments of this section, the author concludes 'that, agreeably to general practice and opinion, only two of the metals are proper for the alloy of gold coin, namely, silver and copper; as all the others either considerably alter the colour, or diminish the ductility of gold. In respect to the latter quality, the different metallic substances which have been employed in the present experiments, appear to affect gold nearly in the following decreasing order: 1. Bismuth; 2. Lead; 3. Antimony; 4. Arsenic; 5. Zinc; 6. Cobalt; 7. Manganese; 8. Nickel; 9. Tin; 10. Iron; 11. Platina; 12. Copper; 13. Siver.'—The three first named are nearly equal in effect.

Sect. 2nd. *On the specific Gravity of Gold when alloyed by various Metals.*

The results of the particular experiments on this subject are given in several tables, to which we must refer our readers: but the circumstances producing variations in the specific gravity of metals are enumerated in the following passage:

'Imperfections in the interior of the mass, which are produced during the processes of melting and casting.

'The difference of density in parts of the same mass, resulting from the quality and quantity of the metal, from the nature of the mould, from the more or less vertical position of it, and from the height of the column or bar of metal which is cast.

'The unequal distribution of the metal or metals, employed as an alloy, throughout the mass intended to be alloyed.

'The peculiar effects which certain metals produce, when used singly or conjointly as alloys, and which are very different from the results of calculation.

'Heat, whether produced by friction or excited in any other manner.'

The 3d Section relates to *the comparative wear of Gold, alloyed by various Metals.*

'Gold, (says the author,) when in the form of coin, appears to be generally exposed to three varieties of friction, *viz.*

'1st. Friction between pieces of gold coin of a similar or of a different quality.

'2dly. Friction of gold coin against coin of other metals, such as silver and copper.

'3dly. The friction which gold coins of various qualities suffer, when exposed to the action of certain substances, such as the particles or filings of metals, gritty powders, &c.

'The consideration of these different modes of wear, points out the best method to be pursued in an experimental investigation.

'The whole of the experiments which compose this section may therefore be divided into three subordinate series; the two first of which have been directed to the consideration of that part of the diminution of the coin which arises from the rubbing of one piece of metal against another; while,

'The third of these subordinate series was intended to show the comparative power of gold, differently alloyed, to resist abrasion from sand or other gritty powders.

'In the first set of experiments, 28 pieces of coin were fixed to a frame, and over each of them was placed another piece of coin, which was pressed against it by a weight. These upper pieces were all attached to a second frame, so that, by means of the motion communicated thereto by cranks, each upper piece was made to move about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch backwards and forwards on the lower one. This mode of experiment afforded an opportunity of trying the comparative diminution of gold differently alloyed, both when rubbed against pieces of the same and of a different alloy; and also of examining the difference of wear between pieces with plain and with stamped faces.

'In the second series 200 pieces of gold, differently alloyed, were inclosed in a wooden box, of a cubic figure, which was kept constantly turning round, till, by the repeated rubbing and striking of the pieces against each other, and against the sides of the box, they were found to be sensibly diminished. This, like the experiments of the first set, was intended to show the comparative diminution of gold differently alloyed; but whereas that shewed the effects of rubbing only, this shewed the joint effect of rubbing and striking, and was intended to imitate (although in a more violent degree) the effect produced upon coin by pouring it out of one bag or drawer into another.

'The experiments of the third set were made by pressing the pieces to be examined against the rim of a flat horizontal wheel, by means of equal weights, so that, by turning the wheel round, they all suffered an equal degree of friction. That part of the wheel against which the pieces rubbed, was sprinkled or coated with some kind of powder, which was occasionally varied.'

To this general account of the mode employed for ascertaining the effects of friction, is added a particular description of the apparatus, as contrived by Mr. Cavendish. The number of revolutions of the machine was accurately noted, and appears to have varied in different experiments from 400 to nearly 300000.

The conclusions drawn from the 1st and 2d series of experiments are thus stated:

'1st. That fine gold, or of 23 car. $3\frac{1}{4}$ grs. when exposed to friction against gold of an equal quality, under the pressure of a considerable weight, suffers a very notable loss; and although various circum-

circumstances seemed to indicate that but little effect, in respect to abrasion, is produced under a less weight, yet it must be remembered, that the first case may occur.

'Moreover by the late experiments it has been proved, that fine gold, under all circumstances, is more subject to have any embossed or raised parts of its surface obliterated than any variety of alloyed gold; not always, nor indeed so much, by actual abrasion, as by having the protuberant parts pressed and rubbed into the mass, in consequence of its extreme softness and ductility.

'2dly. That fine gold, or of 23 car. $3\frac{1}{2}$ grs. when rubbed against the various kinds of alloyed gold, always or generally suffers the greatest comparative loss.

'3dly. That gold reduced to 22 carats, or to standard, by silver, or by silver and copper, or merely by copper, suffers by friction, under general and similar circumstances, a smaller diminution than the fine gold abovementioned; and, with or without abrasion, the protuberant parts on the surfaces of these pieces remain much more permanent, under all circumstances, than those of the fine gold. The difference of wear between the three kinds of standard gold abovementioned, does not in reality appear to be very considerable; but, upon the whole, the preference may be given to gold alloyed with a mixture of silver and copper, or to that which has only copper for the alloy.

'4thly. That gold made standard partly by the addition of iron or tin, sustains a greater loss by friction than either of the three kinds of standard gold abovementioned.

'5thly. That gold reduced to 18 carats by copper, is more liable occasionally to wear, in a small degree, than the three kinds of standard gold which have been lately mentioned, provided that the friction takes place between pieces of equal quality; but, in the contrary case, the principal loss always falls on the soft or standard gold, when it is opposed to gold of 18 carats, which is considerably harder.

'6thly. That gold more debased than that of 18 carats, such as gold alloyed with an equal proportion of copper, suffers very considerably more than any of the kinds hitherto mentioned, provided that the pieces are of the same quality; but, on the contrary, fine and standard gold experience a very great loss, when exposed to the action of this debased gold, while the loss of the latter is comparatively much less.

'7thly. That the wear of standard silver appears to be nearly equal with that of fine gold; but more than that of gold made standard by silver or by copper, and less than that of gold much debased by copper.

'8thly. That, as gold which is not inferior to standard wears in general less than standard silver, so does this last suffer much less than copper.

'The loss sustained by copper, when rubbed against copper, is infinitely more than that of the former metals; and, when these are exposed to the action of copper, they, as well as the copper, suffer a very considerable loss. This appears from the general results of these experiments, which prove, that pieces of metal which are the most subject to wear, are those which produce the greatest loss upon other

pieces of metal, when rubbed against them; and it is remarkable, that *in such a case*, the loss does not always fall on one in preference to the other; so that the wear can only be considered in the aggregate, although one of the pieces may be regarded as the principal cause.'

Very ductile standard gold, when exposed to friction with gold of a similar quality, suffered less by abrasion than that which was comparatively brittle or harder: but, when brittle (or hard) and soft gold rubbed against each other, the greatest loss was sustained by the latter; and pieces which had raised or embossed surfaces always suffered a greater loss by friction, than those which were smooth and flat. When the different alloys of gold were exposed to friction by earthy powders (as whiting or sand) and metallic filings, the wear seemed to be in proportion to their degrees of ductility.

The general observations relating to coinage, which are deducible from the numerous and (to all appearance) accurate experiments recorded in this paper, are, that gold made standard by silver or copper is to be preferred for the purposes of the Mint; and that therefore the present standard gold is 'that which is best adapted to resist abrasion;' especially in the case of coin rubbing against coin:—that gold coin suffers very little loss from friction against itself, and that the chief cause of natural and fair wear arises from extraneous and gritty particles, to the action of which the pieces may be exposed in the course of circulation:—but that the united effects of every species of friction, to which they may be subjected fairly and unavoidably during circulation, cannot produce any other wear than that which is extremely gradual and slow, and such as will by no means account for the extraordinary loss which the gold coin of this country is stated to have sustained within a certain limited time.—Great labour, perseverance, and skill, have evidently been exerted by Mr. Hatchett in this inquiry; and the memoir will make a considerable addition to his already well established chemical reputation.

An Account of some Stones said to have fallen on the Earth in France; and of a Lump of native Iron, said to have fallen in India. By the Right Hon. Charles Greville, F.R.S.—Since the publication of Mr. Howard's and the Count de Bournon's observations on certain stony and metallic substances, said to have fallen on the earth*, Mr. Greville has received from France three additional specimens, which have precisely the same characters, texture, and appearance with the others in his collection.

* See Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 40.

'M. St. Amand, (says he,) very obligingly divided with me a specimen he had broken from a stone of about 15 inches diameter, preserved in the Museum of Bourdeaux, which stone fell near Roqueford, in the Landes, on the 20th August 1789, during the explosion of a meteor; it broke through the roof of a cottage, and killed a herdsman and some cattle. M. St. Amand also gave me part of a stone he had preserved in his collection ever since the year 1790, when a shower of stones, weighing from ½ an ounce to 15 and 25 pounds each, fell in the parishes of Grange and Creon, and also in the parish of Juliac, in Armeagnac; which fact was, at the time, verified by Duby, Mayor of Armile, and published by Bertholon, in the *Journal des Sciences utiles de Montpellier*, in the year 1790.

'The third specimen, I owe to the Marquis de Dree; it is a fragment, broken from a stone of 22 pounds weight, which fell near the village Salles, not far from Villefranche in Burgundy, on the 12th of March 1798; this was also accompanied by a meteor.'

Subsequent to the time at which these specimens came into his possession, the author has met with some additional evidence on the same subject, in an old Persian manuscript, of which a translation is given in this paper by Col. Kirkpatrick. It is an extract from the memoirs of the Emperor Jehangire, written by himself, giving an account of the falling of a luminous body in the year 1620; which buried itself to some depth in the earth, and, when dug out, was found to be as violently heated as if it had been just taken from a furnace. It resembled a lump of iron, and was committed to a skilful artisan, to manufacture into knives, &c. This person, however, found that it shivered to pieces under the hammer, and was only capable of being wrought after having been mixed with a fourth part of common iron.

We are still sceptics in this affair; and we apprehend that much deception has been effected in the minds of uninformed people, by the mere operation of the electric fluid on particles of iron ore in the earth.

Observations on the Structure of the Tongue; illustrated by Cases, in which a Portion of that Organ has been removed by Ligature. By Everard Home, Esq, F.R.S.—The tongue has generally been regarded as an organ of peculiar delicacy, severely affected by any local irritation, and capable, when injured, of producing an universal derangement of the system. A case occurred to Mr. Home, however, which presented some new and useful views on the subject. A gentleman had his tongue accidentally bitten with great violence. Much local pain was produced, but it was unaccompanied by swelling, or any other symptom than that the point was deprived of sensibility and the power of taste. From this case, the author was led

led to conclude that the tongue is not particularly irritable: but that the nerves which supply the tip, and form the organ of taste, are very readily deprived of their natural action, perhaps from their being of a softer texture than nerves in general, and in that respect resembling those of the other organs of sense. From these circumstances, united to the consideration that an injury done to the nerves of the tongue, so great as to deprive them of the power of communicating sensation, was productive of no inflammation nor irritation in their nervous trunks, he was induced, in three cases of disease in this organ, to practice the removal of a part of it.

The first case was that of a fungous excrescence in a child eight years old, which existed at its birth and had increased ever since. It was seated on the right side of the anterior part of the tongue, and extended nearly from the outer edge to the middle line at the tip. Partial extirpation having frequently failed in producing a cure, it was determined to remove that part of the tongue to which the tumour adhered. This was done by passing a crooked needle, armed with a double ligature, through its substance, immediately beyond the excrescence; and the ligatures were tied so as to stop the circulation in the segment of the tongue on which the fungus was seated. The operation was attended with little pain; an opiate was given; and on the 5th day the portion of tongue came away with the ligatures, leaving a sloughy surface. This was thrown off on the 11th day, and was succeeded by another, which separated on the 15th. The cure was complete.

In two other cases, where there was a small tumour of the size of a pea, a cure was produced in a similar way.

The author infers, from these instances, a singular power possessed by the tongue, of throwing off its sloughs in a shorter time than any other part; and he adverts to this organ being much less affected by compression than the hæmorrhoidal veins in piles, or the spermatic veins in cases of varix: in both of which, violent local inflammation and considerable general fever are frequently produced.

An Account of some Experiments and Observations on the constituent Parts of certain astringent Vegetables; and on their Operation in Tanning. By Humphry Davy, Esq., Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution.—The author's principal design, in turning his attention to the subject of this paper, was to elucidate the practical part of tanning, by pursuing the valuable observations of Messrs. Seguin and Proust on the nature of this process. The discovery made by the former, of a peculiar vegetable matter, now called tannin, which is essential to the

the tanning of skin, and is possessed of the power of precipitating gelatine from its solutions, is of considerable interest and importance in the theory of the art: but, at the same time, it is observed by Mr. Davy, that 'its processes appear to have arrived, in consequence of repeated practical experiments, at a degree of perfection which cannot be very far extended by means of any elucidations of theory that have as yet been made known.'

In the progress of his inquiries, the ingenious author is necessarily led to an analysis of the different vegetable substances containing tannin, and their peculiar properties. The first section includes observations on the analysis of astringent vegetable infusions. After having made several experiments on different methods of ascertaining the quantity of tannin in astringent infusions, he was induced to employ the common process of precipitation by gelatine, as the most accurate. He remarks, however, that the quantity of the precipitate obtained is not always proportional to the quantities of tannin and gelatine in solutions, but is influenced by the degree of their concentrations; and that the solutions of gelatine should be employed only when quite fresh, and in as high a state of saturation as is compatible with their perfect fluidity. He likewise observes that care must be taken to prevent the addition of any excess of gelatine; because, in this case, the result is likely to be affected by a portion of the solid compound being redissolved.

Mr. Hatchett has noticed that isinglass is almost wholly composed of gelatine; and the present author has found that 100 grains of good and dry isinglass contain rather more than 98 grains of matter soluble in water: hence, by comparing the quantity of this substance employed in any solution for acting on an astringent infusion, with the quantity of the precipitate obtained, the difference between them will indicate the proportion of tannin, as it exists in the combination. After the separation of the tannin, Mr. Davy evaporates the residuum at the temperature of about 200°, and pours on alcohol, for the purpose of dissolving the gallic acid and the extractive matter. He has not yet been able perfectly to separate the last two from each other: but he can form some estimate of their relative proportions by employing the muriate of alumine, which precipitates much of the extractive matter, without acting materially on gallic acid, and afterward adding the oxygenated sulphate of iron, which gives a black precipitate with the gallic acid.

The second section contains *Experiments on the Infusions of Galls*, in which the author minutely examines the different

combinations formed with and changes produced by various reagents. For the detail of the experiments, we must refer to the paper: but we insert some of the observations, as affording the more interesting results.

'In examining the action of animal substances upon the infusion of galls, with the view of ascertaining the composition of the compounds of gelatine, and of skin, with tannin, I found that a saturated solution of gelatine, which contained the soluble matter of 50 grains of dry isinglass, produced from the infusion a precipitate that weighed nearly 91 grains; and, in another instance, a solution containing 30 grains of isinglass, gave about 56 grains; so that, taking the mean of the two experiments, and allowing for the small quantity of insoluble matter in isinglass, we may conclude, that 100 grains of the compound of gelatine and tannin, formed by precipitation from saturated solutions, contain about 54 grains of gelatine, and 46 of tannin.

'A piece of dry calf-skin, perfectly free from extraneous matter, that weighed 180 grains, after being prepared for tanning by long immersion in water, was tanned in a portion of the infusion, being exposed to it for three weeks. When dry, the leather weighed 295 grains: so that, considering this experiment as accurate, leather quickly tanned by means of an infusion of galls consists of about 61 grains of skin, and 39 of vegetable matter, in 100 grains.

'After depriving a portion of the infusion of all its tanning matter, by repeatedly exposing it to the action of pieces of skin, I found that it gave a much slighter colour to oxygenated sulphate of iron, than an equal portion of a similar infusion which had been immediately precipitated by solution of isinglass; but I am inclined to attribute this effect, not to any absorption of gallic acid by the skin, but rather to the decomposition of it by the long continued action of the atmosphere; for much insoluble matter had been precipitated, during the process of tanning, and the residuum contained a small portion of acetous acid.

'In ascertaining the quantity of tannin in galls, I found that 500 grains of good Aleppo galls gave, by lixiviation with pure water till their soluble parts were taken up, and subsequent slow evaporation, 185 grains of solid matter. And this matter, examined by analysis, appeared to consist,

Of tannin - - -	130 grains.
Of mucilage, and matter rendered insoluble by evaporation; - - -	12
Of gallic acid, with a little extractive matter	31
Remainder, calcareous earth and saline matter	12.

Section 3d details *Experiments and Observations on Catechu or Terra Japonica.*

Mr. Davy was induced to direct his attention to the nature of this substance, from its being suggested by Sir Jos. Banks, that its sensible qualities seemed to indicate tannin to be a constituent part of it. Of this extract he observes that there are two kinds:

'One

'One is sent from Bombay, the other from Bengal; and they differ from each other more in their external appearance than in their chemical composition. The extract from Bombay is of an uniform texture, and of a red brown tint, its specific gravity being generally about 1.39. The extract from Bengal is more friable, and less consistent; its colour is like that of chocolate externally, but, when broken, its fracture presents streaks of chocolate and of red-brown. Its specific gravity is about 1.28. Their tastes are precisely similar, being astringent, but leaving in the mouth a sensation of sweetness. They do not deliquesce, or apparently change, by exposure to the air.'—

'The strongest infusions and decoctions of the two different kinds of catechu, do not sensibly differ in their nature, or in their composition. Their colour is deep red-brown, and they communicate this tinge to paper; they slightly redden litmus paper; their taste is highly astringent, and they have no perceptible smell.'

The same plan was adopted in analysing the catechu, that was followed in the examination of the other species of astringent substances. Two hundred grains of powdered Bombay catechu afforded

	Grains.
'Tannin	109
Peculiar extractive matter	68
Mucilage	13
Residual matter; chiefly sand and calcareous earth	10

'The powder of the Bengal catechu gave, by similar methods of analysis, in 200 grains,

	Grains.
Tannin	97
Peculiar extractive matter	73
Mucilage	16
Residual matter; sand, with a small quantity of calcareous and aluminous earths	14'—

'Of two pieces of calf skin which weighed, when dry, 132 grains each, and which had been prepared for tanning, one was immersed in a large quantity of the infusion of catechu from Bengal, and the other in an equal portion of the infusion of that from Bombay. In less than a month they were found converted into leather. When freed from moisture, by long exposure in the sunshine, they were weighed. The first piece had gained about 34 grains; and the second piece 35½ grains. The leather was of a much deeper colour than that tanned with galls, and on the upper surface was red-brown. It was not acted on by hot or cold water; and its apparent strength was the same as that of similar leather tanned in the usual manner.'

The 4th Section consists of *Experiments and Observations on the astringent Infusions of Barks, and other vegetable Productions.* Two hundred grains of the strongest infusions of the barks of oak, Leicester willow, and Spanish chesnut, were submitted to evaporation; and in this process 'the infusion of the oak bark

bark furnished 17 grains of solid matter; that of the Leicester willow about 16½ grains; and that of the Spanish chesnut nearly an equal quantity. The tannin given by these solid matters was, in that from the oak bark infusion 14 grains; in that from the willow bark infusion 14½ grains; and in that from the Spanish chesnut bark infusion 13 grains.' Calculating from the results of other experiments, the author is disposed to conclude that the compound of tannin and gelatine, from the strongest infusion of oak bark, consists in 100 parts 'of 59 parts of gelatine and 41 of tannin; that from the infusion of Leicester willow bark, of 57 parts of gelatine and 43 of tannin; and that from the infusion of Spanish chesnut bark, of 61 parts of gelatine and 39 of tannin.'

'Two pieces of calf-skin, which weighed when dry 120 grains each, were tanned; one in the strongest infusion of Leicester willow bark, and the other in the strongest infusion of oak bark. The process was completed, in both instances, in less than a fortnight; when the weight of the leather formed by the tannin of the Leicester willow bark was found equal to 161 grains; and that of the leather formed by the infusion of oak bark was equal to 164 grains.'

When the process of tanning, however, was more slowly conducted, and was effected by weaker solutions, the increase of weight was much less, and the colour of the leather was deeper.

With regard to the relative quantities of tannin in different entire barks, the results were as follow: In the quantity of an ounce of its bark, the oak produced 61 grains of matter dissolved by water, of which 29 grains were tannin; the Spanish chesnut, 53 grains, of which 21 were tannin; and the Leicester willow, 71 grains, of which 33 were tannin. An ounce of the bark of the elm furnished 13 grains of tannin, and of the common willow 11 grains; the same quantity of Souchong tea afforded 48 grains, and of green tea, 41 grains; 165 grains of matter soluble in water, of which 78 grains were tannin, and 156 grains, of which 79 were tannin, were afforded, the former from an ounce of Sicilian, the latter from an ounce of Malaga sumach. Very little tannin was observed in cinchona or other febrifuge barks, and none in any of the strongly bitter vegetable infusions which Mr. Davy examined: but he has found it in sloes, port wine, and substances which contain sugar and vegetable acids; and he suspects that it exists in all matters possessed of the astringent taste.

The 5th and last Section is occupied with general observations relating to the subject of this paper. Though tanning may be quickly effected by means of strong infusions of barks of catechu, yet the author is of opinion that the leather, which

is

is produced by a slower process, is stronger and softer; and that this circumstance probably arises from a greater quantity of the extractive matter combining with the skin than could otherwise be the case. The different qualities of the leather, seem to him to depend very much on the various quantities of this extractive matter, which have entered into chemical combination with it.

Catechu is the substance which, according to Mr. Davy's experiments, affords the greatest quantity of tannin; and it appears to him that if, according to the usual estimation, from four to five pounds of common oak bark are required to produce one pound of leather, about half a pound of catechu would answer the same purpose. He also concludes that, allowing for the difference in the composition of the various kinds of leather, 'one pound of catechu, for the common uses of the tanner, would be nearly equal in value to 2½ pounds of galls, to 7½ pounds of the bark of the Leicester willow, to 11 pounds of the bark of the Spanish chesnut, to 18 pounds of the bark of the elm, to 21 pounds of the bark of the common willow, and to 3 pounds of sumach.'

Appendix to Mr. Wm. Henry's Paper, on the Quantity of Gases absorbed by Water, at different Temperatures, and under different Pressures.—The author here informs us that he has found, since the printing of his former communication, 'that the numbers assigned in it, as indicating the quantities taken up by water, of some of the more absorbable, and of all the less absorbable gases, are rather below the truth.' He communicates the results of his latest experiments, and farther explains the ideas suggested to him by Mr. Dalton on the absorption of carbonic acid gas by water, by stating 'that the absorption of gases by water is purely a mechanical effect, and that its amount is exactly proportional to the density of the gas, considered abstractedly from any other gas with which it may accidentally be mixed:'—hence, 'if the residuary gas contain $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, or any other proportion, of foreign gas, the quantity absorbed by water will be $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, &c. short of the maximum.'

The usual Meteorological Journal terminates this part of the present volume. Part II. has just made its appearance.

ART. VIII. *A Chronological History of the Discoveries in the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean.* Part I. commencing with an Account of the earliest Discovery of that Sea by Europeans, and terminating with the Voyage of Sir Francis Drake, in 1579. Illustrated with Charts. By James Burney, Captain in the Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 400. 1l. 4s. Boards. Nicol, &c. 1803.

MARITIME discovery possesses most of the qualities which excite and gratify the curiosity of civilized man; and though we may not always be able to approve the motives which have prompted nations and individuals to explore unknown seas, we are soon induced to forego this preliminary objection, in contemplating the beneficial consequences which have resulted from their enterprize. Commerce, which has polished the world by a gradual communication of enlightened legislation, and of all the comforts of life, has also received its greatest extension from this spirit; to which we, as Britons, are eminently indebted for those important parts of the strength of the empire, our navy, colonies, and distant dominions. We therefore enter with great pleasure on the review of a work which is intended to trace discovery regularly from its source; and which proceeds from the pen of one whose profession, and whose personal experience as a companion of the immortal COOK, so well qualify him for the office which he has assumed.

From a prefatory address to Sir Joseph Banks, we learn that this volume is to be considered in two points of view; as an intended specimen of the possibility of a general digest of Maritime Geographical Discovery, and in its own individual character. The author observes that 'the accounts of voyages now in the possession of the public, are alone sufficient, both in number and in quantity, to form a considerable library. The length to which some of the relations have been extended, especially those of a modern date, and the want of any general arrangement, are become vexatious obstructions to the acquisition of knowledge in maritime geography.' To obviate these evils, he proposes, 1st. a classified digest of such voyages as have afforded real information; and, 2dly, compression. In considering the former of these requisites, he points out the objections to a *chronological* or *national* arrangement in a general history of voyages; and principally because either of these arrangements 'would be attended with this great inconvenience, that to obtain a satisfactory account of any one subject, it might be requisite to consult every volume in the collection, however extensive.' He therefore bestows a decided preference on the method of classing voyages according to some hydrographical division of the globe, preserving to each division the

chronological order of narration. It is necessary to give the proposed classification, in order that our readers may comprehend the full scope and intention of Captain Burney's plan, and thence be enabled more distinctly to appreciate its merits:

'The following division is proposed as one which appears capable of preserving its classes in a great measure distinct from each other.

'The first class may contain the voyages to the north of Europe; those in the north seas, and towards the north pole.

'The second, those along the west coast of Africa to the *Cape of Good Hope;* and the discoveries of the Atlantic islands.

'The third, east from the *Cape of Good Hope* to *China,* including the Eastern Archipelagos between *New Holland* and the coast of *China*. *Japan* might have a section to itself as a supplement to this class.

'The fourth might contain the whole of the discovery of the east side of America, except the *Strait of Magalhanes* and of *Le Maire,* which are more connected with the voyages to the South Sea.

'The fifth class may comprehend the circumnavigations and voyages to the South Sea. With these, the discoveries on the west coast of North America are so much interwoven, that they cannot, without disadvantage, be separated.

'The discoveries made by the Russians in the seas near *Kamtschatka,* and from thence to the north, would appear not improperly as a supplement to the fifth class.

'*New Holland* might form a sixth class. This country would naturally have divided itself between the third and fifth, had not its importance so much increased within the few last years, that it now requires a distinct class to itself.

'The foregoing division is offered as a sketch for a general plan: the classes are capable of modification, according to the convenience or inclination of those who may undertake any part of the task.'

In treating of the other requisite, *compression,* the author particularly notices the superabundance of nautical remarks with which some accounts are loaded; 'even in known seas, and when far distant from land, as if it were a matter of importance to settle the exact geography of a spot in the middle of the ocean, where no mark exists by which it can be ever recognized. To remedy this by striking out any part of what is useful, is to exchange superfluity for defect. Many have supposed that to abridge is a work of no labour; that to read and reject such parts as are disapproved, is nearly the whole that is required: the consequence has been, that abridgments have been undertaken by persons very inadequately skilled in the subject of which their original consisted.' In a complete account of a voyage, Capt. B. remarks, 'every thing should be mentioned which possesses any prospect of utility, and the quantity of remark may be proportioned to the importance and to the occasion;

occasion; avoiding to seek brevity at the expence of the more valuable qualities of information or interest.'

The methodical arrangement above described certainly affords much encouragement and facility in a great and important undertaking, since each class may occupy the undivided attention of any person who may deem himself qualified for the particular subject. In the present instance, as we have already intimated, the choice has been made on good grounds, which are thus modestly stated by Capt. Burney: 'For the subject of the present work (he says), I have chosen the discoveries made in the South Sea, to which my attention has been principally directed, from having sailed with that great Discoverer and excellent Navigator the late Capt. Cook, under whose command I served as Lieutenant in his two last voyages.' We are subsequently informed that Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Dalrymple, and Major Rennel, gave their approbation and assistance to the author's plan; and doubtless these eminent geographers were glad to acquire such a fellow-labourer in the spacious field of their useful investigations: reasonably expecting from the personal observations and experience of Captain Burney, an able commentary on the voyages and discoveries which have produced our acquaintance with the South Sea.

One of the great difficulties in this plan seems to consist in executing the task of compression so as to avoid dryness or material omission; though it is possible that the careless compilations, which in the present day too often stifle the sources of real information, may have habituated the mind to magnify this difficulty beyond reality. A work may naturally, without any intention of its author, retain an individual character of its own, from whatever source the materials are drawn; if in his progress he closely examine the subject, and bestow on it the best illustration which his own knowlege and reflection can afford. Under such circumstances, indeed, a writer may be even supposed unable to prevent the appearance of a manifest originality in his compositions. How far this observation applies to the present publication will be hereafter seen.

The volume commences with a description of the natural limits of that part of the ocean which is now known by the appellation of the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, and with a concise account of the discoveries effected, as well as the various attempts to make others, by Europeans within those limits previously to the voyage of *Magalhaens*. The attention of all the maritime powers of Europe was at that time directed to discovery; and the partitions of the *New World* in favour of Portugal and Spain, by the Pope, had already been matter of serious discussion between those nations. In the year 1513, the South Sea

Sea was first seen by Europeans from the Isthmus of Darien; and Capt. B. makes this remark on the origin of the name *South Sea*:

'The particular position of the coast of that part of the American continent from whence the sea on the other side was first discovered, appears to have stamped on it the denomination of the SOUTH SEA. The isthmus of *Darien* lies nearly east and west; consequently, there the two seas appear situated, the one to the north, and the other to the south. If the new sea had been first discovered from any part to the south of the bay of *Panama*, it would probably have received some other appellation. A consequence resulting from the name thus imposed has been, that the Atlantic ocean, by way of contra-distinction, has occasionally been called the North Sea, even in its most southern part. A ship sailing through the strait of *Magalhaens*, has been said to have passed from the North Sea into the South Sea, or *vice versa*: and in the *Dict. Encyclopédique*, we meet with the following article, '*Riviere de la Plata,—qui prend sa source a Pérou & va se jetter dans la mer du Nord par le 35me deg. de Lat. Merid.* The two seas nevertheless, relative to each other, are North and South only in the neighbourhood of the isthmus of *Darien*: in their general extent they are east and west.'

The possibility of sailing round the south point of Africa having been recently ascertained by the Portuguese, an inference was drawn that America terminated to the southward in a similar manner, and a voyage for discovering a passage to the South Sea was undertaken in 1515: but the commander, Juan Diaz de Solis, one of the most able navigators of his time, being killed at Rio de la Plata, the attempt was abandoned; and thus the glory of first penetrating from the Atlantic to the South Sea, and of the consequent circumnavigation of the globe, was reserved for Magalhaens, a Portuguese who, from disgust at neglect or ill-treatment in his own country, had offered his services to the crown of Spain. Many accounts of the voyage of Magalhaens have appeared, but all of them are defective, and ill-agreeing with each other; and therefore the scattered materials, from which the present history has been necessarily compiled, are well adapted to display the author's assiduity of research, and his skill in combining broken narratives to form a consistent whole. Capt. B. has given a list of the early authorities, accompanied with a short character of each, and the circumstances under which it was written: but the account, which there is reason to believe was the most authentic and complete, was lost to the world.

'It was written by Pietro Martire, a Milanese, generally distinguished by the appellation of *P. Martyr de Angera*, who was in the service of the emperor CHARLES V., and at the time a commissioner for the affairs of the Spanish Indies. He was ordered by the

emperor to repair to *Seville*, for the express purpose of collecting all the information that could be obtained, both oral and written, from those who returned, and to draw up a history of the voyage. He completed his task, and the manuscript was sent to Pope ADRIAN VI. at *Rome*, under whose auspices it was to have been printed. But ADRIAN dying soon after (as likewise did *P. Martyr*), the work seems to have been neglected by his successor; and, in the sacking of the city by the *Connétable de Bourbon*, 1527, the copy was unfortunately lost, probably consumed by the flames, as it has never since appeared. In Martire's 5th Decade, cap. 7, which has for title *De Orbe Ambito*, and is addressed "*Adriano Pontifici Maximo*," there is an abridged account, or rather the author has recapitulated the heads of the voyage.'

The authorities chiefly followed by Capt. B. for the voyage of Magalhaens are, the Narrative of Antonio Pigafetta *, and Herrera's History of the Indies. Pigafetta performed the voyage with Magalhaens, and his Narrative was the first detailed account that was given to the public. A passage in this Narrative has been the subject of much discussion: in the course of which it has been pretended that Martin Behaim was the original discoverer of the Southern Strait of America; that is, that he had delineated it on a chart before the voyage of Magalhaens: but Capt. B. refuses his assent to the claim in favour of Behaim:

'If any mention of such a chart could be traced to a date prior to the voyage of MAGALHANES, it would be entitled to some degree of credit: but the assertions above cited, being written posterior to his discovery, they require the support of strong evidence, such as the production of the chart in question, with satisfactory proof to establish the fact of a date early enough to anticipate the claim of MAGALHANES. When such evidence shall be produced, it will be time to enter seriously into the enquiry; but, till then, it would be injustice to the memory of a great enterprize.'

We are not, indeed, to be surprized that (as in the case of *Columbus*) the previous speculations of geographers have been urged as a diminution of the glory of Magalhaens: but it should be considered that, while half the globe remained unexplored, many vague speculations must have been hazarded; and such of them as were eventually confirmed form no real derogation from the merit of those discoverers, who demonstrated what before was only supposed to exist. As to the claims of Behaim, they are fully refuted by the description and representation of a globe made by him at Nuremberg in 1492†

* See an account of Pigafetta's voyage, as lately published, Rev. Vol. xxxvii. N. S. p. 474.

† See the above-cited article.

the

(the year in which Columbus sailed on his great voyage of discovery) which has been lately published: because, on this globe, no American continent appears, nor any land to obstruct a free navigation westward to China.

The track of Magalhaens across the South Sea has been with the author a subject of much investigation. Of all the numerous islands scattered in that ocean, two only, and those barren and uninhabited, were discovered by that navigator. The position of these islands is calculated by Capt. B. from a combination of the circumstances which occur in the old accounts; and his reasonings on this point appear to stand on the fairest ground of probability. It is not ascertained that either of these islands has been seen by subsequent navigators: but the author is of opinion that the island *Solitaria*, discovered by *Mendana*, in 1595, in lat. 10°. 40′ south, long. 173½° west from Greenwich, may be supposed to be the island *Tiburones*. The track of Magalhaens is not marked in any of the early charts that have come under our observation; and perhaps the chart at the beginning of the present volume exhibits the only attempt deserving of notice, to delineate the progress of this first navigation across the *Pacific Ocean:* which was so named by Magalhaens, on account of the mild weather experienced by him after he came within the influence of the trade winds.

At one of the Philippine Islands, at that time named the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, Magalhaens became embroiled with the natives, and lost his life. He had arrived with three ships at the island of *Zebu*, in April 1521; and in the short space of a week, he had obtained sufficient influence to persuade the sovereign of *Zebu* (whose example was followed by most of his subjects) to become a convert to the Christian religion, and to acknowlege himself a vassal of the crown of Spain. Previously to this event, the people of *Zebu* were idolaters; and Capt. B. observes:

'The sudden conversion of the people of *Zebu* to the religion of strangers, who had no other means of communicating their instructions, than through the intervention of an ignorant interpreter, is truly extraordinary; but may more naturally be attributed to an indifference for their own modes of worship, than to any conviction which, in so short a time, under such circumstances, could have been impressed upon them of the merits of the religion they embraced.

'This slenderness of attachment to their idolatry appears to have been, even in our own time, characteristic in those natives of the *Philippine* Islands, who had preserved their original customs. In a chart published from a Spanish manuscript, dated 1754, of the North side of *Mindanao*, inserted in the second volume of Mr. *Dalrymple's* Collection of Plans of Ports, the following remark appears on one

part of the coast: 'The greater part of the natives retired to the mountains on account of the invasion of the Moors. These are, as yet, chiefly Gentiles, easily to be converted.'

The account of the death of Magalhaens will be interesting to the reader, and will also serve as a specimen of the general style of the narrative; as well as of the author's manner of blending the various authorities from which he has compiled his history of this voyage.

'Near the port of *Zebu* was a small island named *Matan*, over which the captain-general was desirous to extend his authority. He accordingly sent to demand of Cilapulapo, the chief of *Matan*, a tribute, as an acknowledgment of fealty and obedience due to the emperor, and that he would submit himself to the Christian king of *Zebu*; threatening that if these conditions were not complied with, his town (which was likewise named *Matan*) should be destroyed. The chief of *Matan*, who was of a warlike disposition, and on that account high in reputation among the natives, returned answer, 'that he desired to be on good terms with the Spaniards, and that he might not be accounted inhospitable, he sent them a present of provisions. As to obedience, he could owe none to strangers of whom he had never before heard, neither would he submit to do reverence to those he had long been accustomed to command.' This answer did not at all satisfy the general, and he determined to go and punish the king of *Matan* for his contumacy. His friend, the Christian king, advised him against the expedition, as he had received information that not only the chief, whose village had been burnt, but likewise the others who had made their submission, were at *Matan* with their forces to support the cause of the chief of that island. Captain Juan Serrano entertained the same opinion with the King of *Zebu*, and endeavoured to dissuade his commander from the undertaking; but he continued firm in his first determination. Pigafetta relates, that he was deceived by a promise of being joined by one of the chiefs as soon as he should land at *Matan*. MAGALHANES, however, was not of a disposition that rendered encouragement necessary.

'The King of *Zebu*, finding the general so resolute, prepared to join in the expedition, as did his son-in-law, and most of the principal inhabitants of the town of *Zebu*. At midnight, on the 26th of April, MAGALHANES set out for *Matan*, with 60 Europeans in three boats, accompanied by the Christian King, (so Herrera constantly styles the *Zebu* chief,) and 1000 of his men, in canoes. They arrived at the island of *Matan* two hours before day, but it being low water, the boats could not get within a cross-bow shot of the town. By advice of the Christian King, the landing was deferred till day-light, as it was supposed that the people of *Matan*, warned by the former expedition of the Spaniards, had made preparations against a night attack: and this was not a mistaken conjecture, for they had dug pits between the landing-place and the town, and fixed in them sharp stakes.

'MAGALHANES, whilst he waited the approach of day, sent on shore the Moor merchant, formerly mentioned, to offer in his name, proposals

proposals of accommodation, the conditions of which were, that the King of *Matan* should make his submission, acknowledge the sovereignty of the crown of Spain, and pay the tribute demanded: that then all past offences should be forgotten, and he and his people be regarded as friends. The King of *Matan*, not intimidated by the approach of the Spaniards, returned an answer of defiance, to which, with mischievous pleasantry, he added a request, that he might not be attacked before day-light, as he then expected considerable reinforcements. This was said in the hope of enticing, or provoking the Spaniards to immediate action. When it was light, the King of *Zebu* offered to make the first onset with his 1000 men, which would, he said, if they were supported by the Spaniards, ensure the victory. MAGALHANES not only declined accepting this offer, but was so fully persuaded that no number of Indians could withstand the attack of sixty armed Europeans, that he ordered the Christian King to remain quietly with his people in the canoes, from whence they might take notice how the Spaniards fought.

'Accordingly, leaving a small number with the boats, MAGALHANES landed with his men, and marched up to the town. [Herrera says 55 Spaniards landed. Pigafetta states the number to be 49, among whom himself was included, and that 11 were left to guard the boats.] No enemy appeared at first to oppose them, and some of the houses had been set on fire by the Spaniards, when a strong body of Indians were seen advancing on one side. By the time the Spaniards had made dispositions to attack them, a second body of Indians appeared, advancing from another quarter, and MAGALHANES was obliged to make a division of his force. Pigafetta says, the Indians had divided themselves into three battalions; that two attacked the Spaniards in flank, and the third in front. He estimated their strength at 1500 men; Herrera states it at 6000 men; and Gomara at 3000. The Indians, however, did not venture on a close attack; nor does it appear that the Spaniards advanced beyond the town; but a kind of missive battle was kept up during the greater part of the day, with stones, lances, and arrows on one side, against the musquetry and cross-bows of the other. The islanders, finding they received less injury from the fire of the Spaniards than they had apprehended, were encouraged to approach near enough to aim their darts at the person of the Captain-general, who, with the intention of intimidating them, sent a few of his men to set fire to some houses at a small distance, above twenty of which were consumed; but this measure produced a contrary effect. Either from rage at seeing their houses burnt, or believing they could attack the detached party with advantage, numbers of the Indians rushed towards the spot, and two of the Spaniards were there killed. The Indians, perceiving that their darts and arrows made no impression when directed against the heads or bodies of their enemies, which were protected by armour, adopted the plan of aiming only at their legs. At length, the ammunition of the Spaniards began to fail, and their fire slackened, which being observed by the islanders, they pressed on, and MAGALHANES found it necessary to order a retreat. The Christian King, during the whole of this time, had paid the most exact obedience to the commands he had received from the General; he and

his men looking quietly at what was passing, without moving from their canoes. Early in the retreat, MAGALHANES was wounded in the leg by an arrow; his person being known to the Indians, their efforts were principally directed against him. The boats were still at a distance, the shore being flat and rocky; and many of the Spaniards, instead of making an orderly retreat, hastened towards them with precipitation. The helmet of MAGALHANES was twice beaten off with stones; his right arm being wounded, he could not use his sword; and being closely pressed on by multitudes, he was brought to the ground. When he was down, an Indian killed him with a lance.

'In the latter part of this unfortunate affair, the Christian King, seeing the distressed situation of the Spaniards, advanced to their relief, by which many were saved. Eight of the Spaniards fell with their commander, among whom was Christoval Rabelo, captain of the Vitoria. Twenty-two were wounded, of which number was Pigafetta, by an arrow in the face. Four of the *Zebu* Indians were likewise killed. Of the people of *Matan*, fifteen were killed, and a great number wounded. The 27th of April, the day of this unfortunate battle, was Saturday, a day which the General held in particular veneration, and had chosen, on that account, for the expedition to *Matan*.'

To the account of this catastrophe, Capt. B. has added the character of this celebrated commander:

'Thus unexpectedly fell MAGALHANES, by a quarrel unnecessarily engaged in, for a cause which cannot be defended, and in the prosecution of which he consulted his presumption rather than his judgment. He is, nevertheless, well worthy the title of 'Great Captain,' given him by Herrera. In his person there was nothing remarkable: he is said to have been under the common size. In his disposition, he was quick, and perhaps irritable. Herrera calls him '*un hombre prompt*;' and certainly, in resolution and decision, few men of any age have equalled him. A strong and peculiar feature in his character, appears to have been inflexible perseverance. He was bent on the performance of whatsoever he undertook, and no common circumstances of discouragement would turn him from his purpose. He was a man to encounter difficulties: whilst he believed them surmountable, they increased the earnestness of his pursuit. As a navigator, he was not inferior to any of his time. As a discoverer, he was second only to COLUMBUS, whose enterprize was so grand, that it left no room for an equal. COLUMBUS atchieved that which no man, except himself, had ever dared to undertake. The praise due to MAGALHANES is, that he performed what no one before him had been able to accomplish.'

The honour of being the first who completed the European navigation round the world indisputably belongs to Magalhaens; who sailed in a westerly direction beyond the meridan of the *Moluccas*, which had before been discovered by an easterly route. After the death of this commander, the King of Zebu no longer respected the power of the Spaniards, but

treacherously invited them on shore, and massacred all who on this occasion intrusted themselves in his power. The remaining Spaniards proceeded from island to island till they arrived at the city of Borneo: where they found much magnificence, and the established ceremonial of a court which appears to have adopted, in an extraordinary degree, the eastern policy of exciting reverence by keeping the vulgar at an aweful distance. 'No one was allowed to have direct communication by speech with the King, except his Queen and sons. Every other person who had any thing to impart to the monarch, addressed himself first to some courtier, his immediate superior in rank, who made the matter known to another, a degree his superior; and thus, step by step, it ascended to a minister who might unfold the business to his sovereign by means of a tube placed in the wall.' The modes of expression among the people of Borneo, as Capt. B. observes, must have been remarkably precise, if the representations of any of the lower class of subjects reached the sovereign with unaltered meaning.

The author justly characterizes the voyage of Magalhaens as one of the most extraordinary and eventful that have ever been performed: 'as a voyage which cannot be contemplated without producing impressions only to be communicated by original discovery. While the advancement of science shall continue to interest mankind, Magalhaens, whose enterprizing perseverance first practically demonstrated the form of our planet, will be remembered with admiration and gratitude.' Men of science, therefore, will feel much obligation to Captain Burney, for having collected and arranged the scanty information extant concerning this important voyage; and in throwing new light on this venerable atchievement, his narrative successfully combines the attractions of novelty and antiquity. The geographical and nautical remarks are drawn up with clearness and brevity; and they are expressed in terms which render them intelligible to every class of readers. It will also be a recommendation with many, that the author has been anxious to keep geographical discussion distinct and separate from the general narrative, wherever the circumstances would so permit.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *The History of the Invasion of Switzerland by the French*, and the Destruction of the Democratic Republics of Schwitz, Uri, and Unterwalden. By Henry Zschokke, National Prefect of the Canton of Basil. Translated from the French of J. B. Briatte, Secretary of Legation to the Helvetic Republic at Paris. With a Preface and Supplement by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 365. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

OF the claims of this work, as it appeared in the French translation, we have already spoken *. The present version comes from the pen of Dr. Aikin; who informs us that the original author 'was nominated in 1798 by the Helvetic directory commissioner of government in the small cantons, and charged with the office of healing, as much as lay in his power, the wounds inflicted by war. In the course of his mission he collected all the materials necessary for the history which he afterwards published; and he drew from the archives of the country all the documents which might contribute to render it exact and authentic.'

The laudable motive which induced the respectable translator to engage in the present undertaking is thus stated:

'Its publication in English at the present period was thought peculiarly calculated to promote that spirit of resistance to unprincipled ambition, and the schemes of universal domination, which is alone to be relied upon in the arduous contest in which the nation is now engaged. The history of the memorable struggle here recorded will show what a people very inconsiderable in point of wealth and number was able to do in checking the progress of a host of invaders, by the mere force of native courage, and enthusiastic love of liberty and their country. It will show, that, stimulated by these motives, a band of peasants could be brought to charge with the bayonet, and entirely to defeat, battalions rendered formidable by their victories to the most warlike troops in Europe. It will also afford much valuable instruction for avoiding the faults which frustrated the defensive plans of the most powerful part of the confederacy, and placed the final stake in the hands of a few half-armed herdsmen. Moreover, it cannot fail to impress every generous mind with an indignant sense of the insolence of a lawless conqueror, and the degradation incurred by a vanquished and subjugated people.'

If, sharing in these honourable feelings, we resume our notice of this history by extracting those passages from which useful lessons may be drawn at this serious crisis,—or which tend to exalt patriotism, to animate zeal, and to call forth exertions on the part of the public,—rather than those which afford scope for criticism, we trust that there will not be many who will remind us that we have forsaken our province, and over-

* See Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 470.

stepped

stepped our boundaries: especially when it is considered that we have already pronounced on the general merits of the work.

For a narrative of the circumstances which led to the antient Swiss confederacy, and of those which account for the amazing successes of this sequestered people; as well as for the detail of those mischiefs which arose out of their victories over Charles the Bold of Burgundy; we must refer to the work, while we attend to the state of the Swiss for the last century and a half;

'After the independence and sovereignty of the Helvetic body had been recognised by the treaty of Westphalia, the Swiss took no part in foreign wars. They thought that the defence of their liberty and country was the only cause which could justify the effusion of blood in war. They were not, indeed, without occasions for taking part in the quarrels of their neighbours, or even without powerful motives to interfere. The war of thirty years, the immoderate haughtiness of Lewis XIV, the terrible contest for the Spanish succession, all in their turns might seem reasons for rousing from their apathy; but they resisted all these temptations, and, content with preventing by force of arms any entrance upon their territories, they obtained without bloodshed, and without hazarding their military reputation, that honourable tranquillity which ought to be the object of every war.

'The resolution of the confederates to preserve a strict neutrality, was strengthened by the considerable changes which had taken place in the political condition of the surrounding countries. Helvetia, formerly encircled by a crowd of petty states, had now great powers for its neighbours. To the east, where formerly a duke of Austria ruled with little danger to her; to the south, where she had seen a duke of Milan imploring her support; now reigned a single monarch, whose dominions extended from the banks of the Rhine and the Adriatic sea to the Tartarian deserts. Burgundy had been swallowed up in the French monarchy, which having for limits the Jura, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, inspired terror by the power of its arms, almost as much as it governed by its manners. The Duke of Savoy now wore a regal crown; and the German empire had acquired, by a more concentrated constitution, a strength formerly unknown to it.

'But the confederates, while they withheld themselves from all participation in foreign quarrels, also prudently restrained their own dissensions, through the apprehension of seeing their neighbours interfere in them. Their numerous civil wars, and the partial alliances which had resulted from them, had established an equilibrium among these small states, which it was equally dangerous to all to destroy. Thus repose and tranquillity again entered these mountains, after having, during several centuries, been banished from them. The calm which succeeded such long and violent storms, blunted by degrees those vehement passions which war had exasperated. The habitude of quiet felicity gave birth to the domestic virtues; and the several tribes of Helvetia, cultivating their lands and giving themselves up to industry, commerce, and the arts, enjoyed life without troubling themselves with what passed abroad: they did not, however, lose the remembrance of what their ancestors had been, nor the confidence

confidence of being able to follow their steps when occasion might require.

'This rapid glance thrown over the annals of history, teaches us at least that the canton of Schwitz was one of the first to lay the foundations of liberty, and that, by its energy alone, and in spite of the feebleness of its means, it was one of those which contributed the most to propagate it in the rest of Helvetia. Faithful to its principles, it never departed from them; and its constitution maintained itself entire till the day of the total destruction of the Helvetic league.'

The gross injustice of the government of Berne towards its subjects of the Pays de Vaud, and its fatal perseverance in oppressive and impolitic measures, with regard to that province, opened to the disturbers of the human race an inlet into Switzerland; while its distracted councils, the insubordination of its armies, and the disunion of its citizens, insured to them an easy conquest. Had not the *great nation*, however, practised the most barefaced treachery that is any where to be found on record, had it not lavished professions of regard towards the democratic cantons, and solemnly protested that it was most remote from its intentions to interfere with their governments, or to invade their territories, the brave inhabitants of these sequestered retreats would have driven its pillaging hordes with ignominy beyond the limits of the confederacy. When, also, the most unparalleled breach of faith that ever abused the confidence of man forced the small cantons to rise in arms, the invaders would have been made to recoil back on their own country, and the asylum of virtue and of freedom would have been rescued, but for the unhappy effects of federalism in diverting the attention from the whole to the parts, each state requiring to be covered by its own troops. By this measure they were so divided as to become weak; whereas, had they overlooked individual pretensions, and acted solely for the common cause, they would have formed into one firm and solid mass, and borne on some weak part of the French line, where their success must have been inevitable; while their victory would have proved a signal to the brave sons of Helvetia to rise in arms: but an evil genius was suffered to fix the destiny of a brave nation, and every thing favoured the unrighteous cause.

Our readers recollect that General Brune had assured the little cantons, that the Directory would in no way interfere with their governments; that, not long after these unqualified protestations were made, these very cantons were absolutely and peremptorily required by a proclamation of the same General Brune to abandon the constitutions transmitted to them from their

their ancestors, and to unite with the other cantons in forming a new constitution; or rather in submitting to such as a foreign power would be pleased to dictate to them.

'This proclamation (says M. Zschokke) became the signal of war, and of the most vigorous preparations for defence. Uri, Schwitz, Unterwalden, Zug, and Glaris, knew the feebleness of their means, and the strength of the colossal power with which they had to contend: but determined to make any sacrifice in order to preserve, if it were still possible, their country and constitution, they did not calculate the disadvantage of their situation, and only listened to the voice of their country crying for succour. Cotemporaries will not assign its just value to this generous self-devotion; but posterity will be more equitable, and it is for posterity to judge the conduct of this people.

'Uri invited its allies to speak in the most energetic manner, and to sacrifice every thing rather than accept the new constitution. On the demand of the canton of Schwitz, it convoked all the others of the Waldstaeten, with Appenzell and the country of St. Gall, to a solemn conference, in which each was to pronounce whether it were proper to receive law from a stranger, and abandon without resistance a system of government which had been accompanied by a felicity of several centuries; or to save the honour of the Swiss name by the employment of all their force, in the most vigorous defence.

'The circular letter of the canton of Uri electrified all the parts of Switzerland to which it was addressed. Every where were seen, not only men in the vigour of life, but old men, children, and even women, without regard to the weakness of sex or age, who prepared to offer their arms for the service of their country.'

The brave children of William Tell, before they had recourse to the alternative of arms, were willing to try what petitions and remonstrances might effect, and deputies were sent to convey them to the agents of the French government. The negotiation, however, proved fruitless; the representatives of these free and independent districts were treated rudely, and harshly; and the demands which they made were haughtily rejected:

'When the deputies of the small cantons were returned home, and had apprised their principals of the bad success of their mission, the rage and indignation of the people arose to their height. A general insurrection took place in all the country between the lakes of Waldstaeten and Constance, and through the whole chain of the Alps. All the heat and fury that passion, enthusiasm, and fanaticism could inspire, was the consequence of these tidings. Fathers and mothers exhorted their children to die for their country. Some invoked the anger of heaven upon the destroyers of the liberty and religion of the Swiss; others prophesied and announced the divine vengeance. The disastrous days of Morgarten and Naefels seemed to be renewed, except that France had taken the place of Austria: the tree of liberty which she was desirous of planting, in the eyes of the enraged inhabitants of the Wald-

Waldstaeten, was the abhorred cap of Gesler, before which they were to be compelled to humble themselves *.'

While France was indefatigable in pursuing hostile measures, dealing out menaces, and issuing imperious declarations,

'These did not humble the spirits of the mountaineers; on the contrary, they inspired them with new energy, by inflaming their rage and pride. Habituated for ages past to be treated by the European powers upon the footing of a free and independent people, how strange must appear to them the denominations of rebels and fanatics which the French agents lavished upon them without reason! France, which, following the example of the Swiss republics, had proclaimed in the face of the world liberty and equality of rights, suddenly advanced to violate the country of William Tell, and spread through it the ravages of war, because it would not receive law from a stranger! France, which preached 'war to thrones and peace to cottages,' now caused its armies to march against the wretched cabins of those herdsmen whose felicity had so long been an object of envy! France, which so lately continued to declare its friendship towards the Swiss democracies, and assured them that it would never break the bonds of union, now attacked these petty communities! It deceived them with the greater facility, as the inhabitants of the small cantons trusted to the promises they had received, not through their opinion of the morality of the rulers of France, but because they gave them credit for greatness of soul enough to disdain having recourse to treachery, while the superiority of their strength offered them sufficient and less guilty means.'—

'In the midst of the afflictive impressions which the conduct of France occasioned, the people of Schwitz united on April the 16th 1798, in a general and extraordinary assembly, in the very place where they had so often sworn fidelity to their constitution, in order to hear the odious proposition which had been made to them. Their deputies, driven from Berne with ignominy, gave an account of their mission, and read the menacing proclamation of the French general.

'It would be difficult to give an image of the effect which the relation of these deputies produced. A dead silence first reigned over the assembly; but presently the liveliest agitation succeeded this apparent calm. No one could comprehend how it was possible to make such demands, and still less, how any one could accede to them. The idea of having enjoyed, during nearly five centuries, an unbounded

* In pictures, long anterior to the French revolution, representing the action of William Tell, the latter is always clad in the national Helvetic colours, green, red, and yellow; but it is singular enough, that Gesler, a person whose memory is odious to the Swiss, is constantly dressed from head to foot, as well as his satellites, in the three French colours. This observation may be verified in the chapels of William Tell at Burglen, Uri, and other places. This circumstance has contributed more, perhaps, than has been imagined, to the decided aversion of the inhabitants of the small cantons towards the French.'

liberty,

liberty, and of being required in an instant to sacrifice it to the unjust resentment of a foreign power, excited a warm indignation through the people, and raised their courage and enthusiasm to the highest pitch.

'The assembly then, electrified as it were by love for their country and zeal to defend it, swore by common consent to reject the demands of France, and to maintain the honour of the Swiss name, its religion and liberty. "We acknowledge no other master than God," was repeated on all sides, "and we will serve no other! We will endure no foreign yoke! What is this liberty to which they would have us sacrifice our own? What have we done to the French, and wherefore do they come to attack us? But we have steel, hands, and the example of our fathers! We will die like christians, or live free like them."

'When this first effervescence was somewhat subsided, the people turned all their rage against the new constitution. They decreed, that any apologist of it, either in public or in private assemblies, should be declared guilty of the crime of *lese-nation*, and delivered as such to trial before the tribunals.'—

'It was further ordered, that every man capable of bearing arms should every day perform his exercise, and that the others should be employed in working upon the fortifications. All the absentees, with the exception of those who were beyond the limits of Switzerland, were commanded to return to their homes, on penalty of forfeiture of their right of citizenship.'—

'The canton of Schwitz was indisputably the soul of the alliance, and the centre of all the military operations. No indecision, no fear, paralysed the efforts of the governors of this canton; the terror which the name alone of France inspired in half the globe, was lost upon this people, who did not calculate the strength of its enemy, but only viewed its injustice. Every individual felt that he had a good cause, and considered only the insult offered to his country. If a similar self-devotion, and a will equally unanimous, had directed the rest of the confederates, it is to be presumed that Schawenburg and his army would have found their graves in the Alps.

'But the greater part of the cantons and countries which, a few days before, had made the most solemn promises to Schwitz of sharing its perils and glory, violated their oaths when the danger approached. Selfishness, jealousy, a little spirit of local interest, and all the vices of federalism, divided the cantons, towns and villages. It was not the brigades of Schawenburg that destroyed the confederacy; the causes of this destruction were within itself; its fall was inevitable even had not France interfered.'—

'The day on which the fate of Switzerland was to be decided, now rapidly advanced. The French brigades, put in motion, marched in several columns, and threatened the small cantons on all sides with a speedy and vigorous attack. It was then that the confederates began to discover their weakness, and the insufficiency of their means. Individual courage was to compensate the want of numbers, and enthusiasm and temerity, the deficiency of tactics and military experience. All methods were therefore employed to produce these effects upon

upon the minds of the people, and exalt their spirits to the requisite degree.

'Full scope was given to the eloquence of the priests, who, on their part, fulfilled their mission with all the ardour of fanaticism, hurling from their pulpits the thunderbolts of religion upon the French armies, which, not content with making war upon the earth, seemed desirous to challenge heaven itself. Sacred standards were planted; and the priests promised the joys of paradise to those who should die fighting under their shade. In the cottages and fields were sung patriotic songs accompanied with military music *; in fine, every thing announced the rage of vengeance, and the desire of dying for their country.

'The council of war hastened to profit of this disposition of the people, and to apply to the execution of their projects; but the whole army of the allies, all their forces united, all in short that they had to oppose to the French, did not exceed ten thousand men.

'Notwithstanding this evident inferiority, it was resolved not to wait the enemy, but to go and meet him, and endeavour, by some brilliant action, to rouse the other parts of Switzerland, and restore them to the antient confederacy. The success of this plan, how rash soever it might seem, turned, however, upon a single victory, a single general engagement; for the French, at that time scarcely amounting to 30,000 in Helvetia, would have been assailed in all quarters, and could not have preserved any rallying point. The discontent against them was become general, and their defeat was universally wished. Never did the sentiment of national honour rise higher among the Swiss, than when the petty cantons were seen boldly to make head against the force of France; and even the friends of the revolution would have preferred the success of the Swiss arms, to that of the foreign arms which came to effect it. The half of Helvetia already revolutionised had desired a change, but one without foreign influence, and was inconsolable to see that foreigners took so active a part in this event. If the conquerors of Berne had been obliged for an instant to retreat, their first retiring step would have been the signal of a general insurrection, and of their entire destruction.

'The confederates, although convinced of the importance of success in the beginning, yet neglected the measures proper to obtain it: they knew not how to command fortune, and render the chance of battle favourable to them. While the French dispersed their troops, and formed a line which extended from Berne to the banks of the Thun, it would have been easy for the confederates to unite all their forces, to attack the enemy in the weakest point, and to make an incursion into one of the neighbouring cantons, whose inhabitants only waited for such a step to declare openly in their favour, and join them in falling upon the French. This operation was the more easy, and

'* The favourite song of the inhabitants of Schwitz, especially of the more enlightened class, and that which the officers sung as they led their soldiers to the foe, had been composed some years before by Henry Zschokke, author of this work, and set to music by Hornschuh, a composer of Berne.'

the

the more certain of success, as the Swiss joined to the perfect knowledge of the mountains and of their defiles, the advantage of every where meeting with the most exact information of the position of the enemy; whilst the latter could only act at hazard, and upon uncertain grounds.

'Instead of this, the confederates, constantly shackled by the unfortunate spirit of federalism, which induced each canton first of all to aim at completely covering its own boundaries, partitioned their small army upon a line of about twenty leagues in extent, thus presenting at all the points of their territory a vain image of defence, and in no part a real and sufficient force.'

The final issue of this contest is sufficiently known.

The author's account of the Swiss hero will not be unacceptable to our readers:

'Aloys Reding, at this period chief of the troops of Schwitz, and the soul of the allied army, had studied the art of war in the service of Spain, in which he was a colonel. He had lately retired into the solitude of the valleys of his country, and devoted his leisure to friendship, to the muses, and to the cultivation of his lands. Long before the revolution, he wished for improvements in the federative system, and desired that his country should enjoy an useful and genuine liberty: but his heart revolted at the idea of a revolution affected by a foreign power, and at the still more hateful idea of seeing his country fall under the dominion of France. Such were the motives which induced him to unsheath his sword, and to shew himself worthy of the Swiss name, and of his brave ancestors.

'His loss of a young and tenderly-beloved spouse had left in his soul a deep melancholy, which perhaps made him still more eager to engage in the hazards of war. Provident, frank, brave, attached to his country, preserving his coolness and self-command both in prosperity and adversity, he became in a short time the favourite and the hope of his people.'

By an express article of the treaty of Luneville, the right of the Swiss to form a constitution for themselves was acknowleged; and this right was afterward personally recognized by Bonaparte in his conferences with Aloys Reding. The French party in Swisserland, however, treacherously and tumultuously obstructed its formation;—assuming an illegal and usurped authority, they created a different one;—and this political regimen, thus unlawfully formed, is imposed on Swisserland by French influence. The French troops being then withdrawn, the Swiss rose as one man against the new constitution, and set about preparing one better adapted to their situation, prejudices, and habits; while the chief Consul, not less regardless of his engagements than the Directory, in violation of his faith pledged at Luneville and to Aloys Reding, arrested their career, and forced them to submit to a constitution dictated by him!

ART. X. *Oberon:* or Huon de Bourdeaux: a Mask. And Orestes: a Tragedy. By Wm. Sotheby, Esq., &c. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

WE have repeatedly borne our testimony to the elegance of Mr. Sotheby's compositions, and to his steady zeal in the defence of good principles, amid all the dissipation of modern literature. In this volume, we find a pleasing abridgement of Wieland's Oberon, thrown into a dramatic form, and enriched with much good writing and many virtuous sentiments.

As a first specimen, we select the Song of the Fairies:

'1st FAIRY.

'Thro' time untold where lurk'd the toad
Clos'd in the cold rock's central womb,
I drove him from his lone abode,
And there I pin'd in sunless gloom,
Doom'd o'er the dreams of bliss to weep,
When cradling lilies rock'd my sleep.

'2nd FAIRY.

'I crept beneath the thorny shade
Where snakes had cast their coily sloughs,
There, forc'd by fate, I wreath'd my braid
With berries pluck'd from night-shade boughs:
And as the rude weed swell'd my hand,
I sigh'd for flow'rs of fairy land—

'3rd FAIRY.

'From yon scath'd oak, at twilight grey,
When the horn'd owlet left her young,
I scar'd her moon-ey'd brood away,
As on their nest my limbs I flung:
And there I thought on fairy bow'rs,
And saddened o'er remembered hours.

'4th FAIRY.

'Where mortal thing might never breathe,
While loitering ice-drops, one by one,
Burst on the fretted flints beneath,
And turn'd each earthly form to stone,
I wept for fairy mountains clear,
And told each ice-drop with a tear.'

In Act 2d, the strains of these fantastic personages assume a higher tone:

'CHORUS of FAIRIES.

'Hail golden Hope—we heard the King,
And shall again on boundless wing,
At will our revelry renew,
And pledg'd in acorn bowls, sip heav'n's ambrosial dew.

'1st FAIRY—*Solo.*

'On earth when Eve's pale twilight gleams,
I, on the gossamer with viewless pace,
The moon will challenge to the race:
And laugh to see her swiftest beams
Silvering the web that dances in the wind,
Glide, as I reach the goal, a fairy's length behind.

'2nd. FAIRY—*Solo.*

'I, o'er the sea my course will take,
And catch with unwet feet the less'ning sail
That vanishes before the gale—
And sliding in its level wake,
Number the sparkles of the foamy tide,
That, glittering o'er the prow, stream radiance far and wide.

'3rd FAIRY—*Solo.*

'I, thro' the path of air will soar,
And when the summer meteor flames afar,
Swifter than glance of shooting star,
Will flash its transient course before:
While scatter'd from my wings in dew-drops bright
The rain bow's lunar arch o'er-canopy's my flight.

'4th FAIRY—*Solo.*

'I, on the sun's slope beam will ride,
And as it sinks th' atlantic wave beneath,
From clouds of roseate lustre wreathe
My robes of light, by fancy dy'd:
Fringe with etherial braid my new-fledg'd wing,
Then spread its feathery pomp, and fan the fairy king.

'CHORUS.

'Hail golden hope! we heard the king
And shall again on boundless wing,
At will our revelry renew,
And pledg'd in acorn bowls sip heav'n's ambrosial dew.'

The general dialogue of the piece, though correctly written, is not distinguished by any passages which require particular notice.

The tragedy of Orestes possesses much force of imagery and sentiment; and Mr. Sotheby's knowlege of the Grecian models has elevated him beyond his usual pitch. We extract one scene, between Orestes and Calchas:

'*SCENE changes to the Temple of Jupiter.*

CALCHAS—(*to a Minister.*)

'Now let him enter. The clear sparkling flame
(Orestes *slowly advances.*
Gave no ungrateful sign—approach the altar.

ORESTES.

'Hail!

CALCHAS.

Not reluctance, youth! nor aught of honor
Due to the minister of highest Jove
Delay'd thy entrance: holy rites enjoin'd it:
And suppliant Kings must wait 'till fav'ring omens
Permit approach.—

ORESTES.

Hail Seer! I bring thee not
Off'rings of votive gold, and precious incense:
No victim led by me shall stain the altar.
If heav'n, ungifted, hears not him who calls,
Seer, I return in silence.

CALCHAS.

There are gifts
Of higher rate than gold and hecatombs:
Gifts, which from op'ning heav'n draw blessings down:
The tribute of an uncorrupted heart.
If such thy offering, speak—

ORESTES.

My years are few.
As yet---these hands are pure---but---

CALCHAS.

Freely speak.

ORESTES.

If thou can read the heart, in mine behold
The bitter conflict of a troubled spirit.
That agonis'd by woe, doubt, fear, despair,
Dreads e'en the wreck of reason.—Seer, assist me.

CALCHAS.

Poor youth! I pity thee—I will assist thee—
My voice shall still the tumult of thy soul.

ORESTES—(*with vehemence.*)

Not that—thou must not still my soul—oh rather
Urge to its height the storm, that so my arm
May execute its mission—holy Seer!
Thou talk'st to one of that disastrous mood
Whose mind no longer master of itself
Acts not its resolve. Seer! I am bound
To deeds that shock my nature. 'Tis most horrible!
Turn this to stone, (*striking his breast*) that, at the name of mother
Sheds drops of blood, and I will do the deed!

(*falls on the altar.*

CALCHAS—(*after a pause.*)

'Tis He—the long expected—(*aside*) 'tis th' avenger.
Thou must perform, unquestion'd, heaven's command—

ORESTES—(*rising gradually almost to frenzy.*)

Prophets may speak, and Oracles pronounce
"So move"—"this deed be done"—'tis Heav'n's command"—
But they forget that the poor instrument

To

To execute that will, is Man, weak Man.
Rocks, at the call divine, leap from their base,
Earth, at the word, deep to its centre shakes,
The sea, and the wing'd storm, and fiery bolt
Wait but a nod. Be these the instruments
To execute heav'n's vengeance on the world.
But let not man be urg'd to shed man's blood.
What, if the guilt of an abandon'd woman
That slew her husband, calls down signal vengeance!
Must the son plunge a dagger in the heart
Of her who bore him?

CALCHAS.

Aid inspiring Jove!
Offspring of Agamemnon, Troy's great conqueror,
Orestes!—

ORESTES.

How—Orestes! why thus call
A wandering stranger, a lost wretch unknown?

CALCHAS—(*with enthusiastic dignity.*)

I know thee—know thou me—'tis Calchas speaks.
I, I, the minist'ring Priest, stood at the altar;
This consecrated blade I hold before thee
Gleam'd in my hand, descending swift in act
To pierce the proffer'd bosom of thy sister,
Whom Agamemnon to Diana's shrine
Had led, his first-born, Iphigene, to slaughter.
The virgin knelt beneath me, and to heav'n
Look'd up with fearless eye. Before me, bow'd,
The father, in his mantle veil'd from sight.
I heard his groan: deep as the groan of death.
The father felt: the chief of Greece obey'd.
Taught by thy father, son, obey the Gods.
Fir'd by thy sister----

ORESTES—(*seizing his dagger.*)

Seer—'tis done—thy dagger!

CALCHAS.

This never shall be stain'd with human blood.
It flashes on my mind. Thy zeal transports thee,
Hast thou forgotten it? not this the blade—
Heav'n, in fit time, will arm thee with a weapon
Forg'd for the dead.—

ORESTES—(*full of horror.*)

'Tis true--- the very blade
(Said it not so?) with which she slew my Father,
So spake the Pythian: and that none, save that,
And trusted to me by a mother's hand
Must do its office. How shall I obtain it?

CALCHAS.

Go forth—thou shalt possess it—now delay not.
Go to thy father's tomb, invoke his shade:

There fate's portentous sign shall fix thy doom.
If unappeas'd the spirit claim revenge,
Strike, without dread—farewell—

ORESTES.

Seer!—I obey—

(*Exeunt.*

The contents of this small volume have afforded us much pleasure; and we recommend the publication to the attention of our readers, as calculated to interest both the learned and the unlearned.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1803.

MINERALOGY.

Art. 11. *Specimens of British Minerals*, selected from the Cabinet of Philip Rashleigh, of Menabilly, in the County of Cornwall, Esq. M.P. F.R.S. and F.A.S. With general Descriptions of each Article. 4to. pp. 26. and 21 Plates. 1 l. 11 s. 6 d. Boards. Nicol.

In the 25th volume of our New Series (p. 320), we announced the first part of this splendid work. We then hinted that the pencil is very inadequate to a satisfactory delineation of universal specimens: but we allow that it may sometimes render a pretty faithful copy of a few of the more prominent characters; and in this secondary point of view, such performances as the present may aid the effect of verbal descriptions.

Among the most remarkable of the copper ores here particularized, we observe two curious varieties of arseniate, thin six-sided plated crystals, of a milk white colour, and double four-sided pyramids, of a sky blue—Of the tin ores, that which comes from Pednandra is found in four sided crystals, covered with 'a white hydrophanous calcedony, that imbibes water immediately, and becomes transparent, so as to shew the tin ore very distinctly, and soon becomes opake again.'—We are also presented with some curious samples of galena, serpentine from the Lizard, three figures of a bivalve fossil from Colebrook Dale, a section of the stream work at Poth; and 'a fossil mamillary echinus, with a flint filling the shell, and running through it, being both unbroken.' Hence it is inferred that the flint must have been in a fluid state, without the agency of fire; as, according to the igneous hypothesis, the shell would have been converted into lime.

The descriptions which accompany the plates are short and meagre. Indeed, the editor disclaims all pretensions to an intimate acquaintance with the science and nomenclature of modern chemistry; and it is proper that intending purchasers should be duly apprized of this circumstance.

Art.

BOTANY, &c.

Art. 12. *Richardi Relham, A.M. Villæ de Hemingby in agro Lincolniensi Rectoris; Regiæ Societatis Londinensis Socii; et Societatis Linnæanæ Assoc. Flora Cantabrigiensis, exhibens plantas Agri Cantabrigiensis indigenas, secundum Systema Sexuale digestas: cum characteribus genericis, diagnosi Specierum, synonymis selectis, nominibus trivialibus, loco natali, tempore inflorescentiæ. Editio altera.* 8vo. pp. 580. 8s. Boards. White, &c. 1802.

An account of the first edition of this respectable work, and of its supplement, was given in our 73d volume, p. 371, and the 74th vol. p. 389. In the present edition, the awkward position of Banhin's name in the list of references can no longer offend us, for it has wholly disappeared; and its absence is more than compensated by those of *Bolton, Sowerby, Roth*, &c. Of new genera, we observe *Æcidium, Alyssum, Auricularia, Beta, Centunculus, Coriandrum, Craterium, Datura, Farinaria, Fistulina, Monotropha, Ornithogalum, Rhizomorpha, Rotbellia, Rubia, Ruppia, Salicornia, Spherocarpus*, and *Trichia*. Not fewer than 281 species have been added, making the list amount to 1344—a greater number than Lightfoot particularized in his *Flora Scotica*.

We wish that the plates of the former edition had been retained: but we hear with sincere concern of the author's inability to pursue his researches in a manner suitable to their importance:

'FLORA *autem* CANTABRIGIENSIS *majores thesauros jactaret, si dies auctori feliciores arrisissent; si rei familiaris angustia itinerum sumptus non omnino vetuisset; animumque frustra luctantem miseriæ quotidianæ prægravâssent.*

'*Aliæ etiam causæ silentio non pretereundæ sunt; specimina in Herbario (heu non amplius meo) conservata, plurima amicorum defunctorum signera, in possessionem* SOCIETATIS LINNÆANÆ *transiverunt: librosque,* Floræ *meæ fructus, ut venderem, sæva constrinxit necessitas.*'

As it is only by the multiplication and careful revision of such Floræ as the present, that we can ever hope to ascertain with precision the vegetable contents of our native country, we trust that the university of Cambridge, or Lord Hardwicke (to whom this edition is dedicated), or some patron of the sciences, will do more than peruse the above affecting statement.

POLITICAL.

Art. 13. *A Reply to two Pamphlets, in Answer to* "The Question, Why do we go to War? temperately discussed, according to the Official Correspondence:" one entitled "The Reason why," and the other "Observations suggested, &c." 8vo. 2s Wallis.

A certain degree of political initiation is essential to the perfect development of cabinet mysteries, which more or less prevail in all great affairs of state. Politicians, when most communicative, do not unbosom all their secrets; and there are some who, by adverting to the Protean shape which the object of the late war assumed, and by regarding the present as its legitimate offspring, are not satisfied with the public reasons assigned for its justification, but suspect that the

real motives are not avowed. The author of the *Question*, &c. (who, if public rumour has rightly given his name, is a man of singular learning and vigour of intellect,) at the commencement of the renewal of the contest, expressed his doubts of the validity of those reasons for going to war, which were furnished to the public in the Official Correspondence; and being invited by his anatagonists to review the ground which he occupied in his first pamphlet, he now firmly perseveres in his original opinion. He regards the whole evidence adduced in the Official Papers rather as pretexts than as substantial reasons for war; and neither to the author of the "*Reason why*," nor to the writer of the "*Observations*," does he yield a single point: but he states more at large his persuasion that the war could and ought to have been avoided,—that gaining time was as much an object of importance to us as to the enemy,—that as to Malta and Egypt they are matters of no importance to this country,—and that we ought not to make the Mediterranean a bottomless pit to swallow up the seamen and treasures of this country. He believes the First Consul to have been serious when he said, that "there would have been nothing he would not have done to prove his desire to conciliate; participation in indemnities as well as *in influence on the Continent*; treaties of commerce; in short any thing that could have given satisfaction or testified his friendship." There was certainly reason for questioning his sincerity respecting his friendly disposition towards our influence on the continent: but we shall not here discuss either this or any other point. We leave it to the Genius of History to penetrate the hidden motives of statesmen, and shall dismiss this pamphlet with remarking that, however certain surmises prevent unanimity of opinion respecting the causes of the war, we truly display that unanimity of defence which, with the blessing of Providence, must secure us against all efforts of the foe.

Art. 14. *The Reason Why*, in Answer to a Pamphlet, entitled, "*Why do we go to War?*" To which is affixed, *A Rejoinder to the Reply* of the Author of "Why do we go to War?" 2d Edition, with Additions. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

Replies and Rejoinders are generally occupied with personal altercations, in which the public have no great concern. So it happens for the most part in the instance before us. This author retorts the accusations of his antagonist, charges him with misquotation and misrepresentation, and, while he uses the lash with much dexterity, takes credit to himself on the score of compassion. The argument is so much exhausted, that little new can be expected in support of the justice and necessity of the war; instead, therefore, of entering into the reasoning of this Rejoinder, we shall satisfy ourselves with giving a single specimen of the manner in which the contest is conducted.

'As for the phrase of "*every one* has read the Correspondence," with which our author finds fault, every liberal minded man will understand it as a common mode of expression, when a publication has been *generally* read. I certainly did not mean, that *every individual being in the British Empire* had performed this task, and I willingly admit, that our author is *critically* exact, when he *politely* says "Every,

"Every one has *not* read the Correspondence," This is the only victory he has gained, and a most glorious and important one it is. I must, however, beg leave to rectify a slight error into which he has *inadvertently* fallen, a few lines farther on. He charges me with having written sixty-four pages to unravel the Correspondence. Now he really totally mistakes the matter. I did not write my *sixty-four* pages to *unravel* the Correspondence, but to *unravel* his comments upon it, to detect his artifices, and to expose his misrepresentations.'

By this happy mode of managing the controversy, it may be made to last as long as the war, but probably not to the satisfaction of the public.

Art. 15. *Eventful Period! Exhortation of the French in England to the French in France, and all over the World.* Translated by Mr. King. 8vo. 1s. Parsons.

From calling names, little benefit is derived even to a bad cause; and a good one, like that of Great Britain at the present moment, should reject the practice with disdain. An enraged *emigré* may write in the following style, but Mr. K. might have spent his time better than by translating it into our language:

'Crouching, kneeling, base, abject people! who have sacrificed the dignity of the nation to elevate one man,—all the natural native growth of France is blasted by this noxious exotic transplantation; that, Colossus like, overtops all other plants, and by its baneful influence dwarfs them. This new-fangled mock reign is the climax stigma of France, the political being of the whole nation is sacrificed to the monstrous ambition of this excrescence of deceit and endless apostacy.'

The whole pamphlet is in this strain.

Art. 16. *Reflections on the Invasion of Great Britain by the French Armies;* on the Mode of Defence; and on the useful Application of the National Levies. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

This author is not only a man of experience, but of sound judgment; and his hints relative to the conduct which ought to be pursued by us, in case of Invasion, merit general attention. He has divided his pamphlet into three chapters; the first treats of the Probability of an Invasion, and on the necessary Preparation;—the second, of the Mode of arming, arranging, and training the National Levies;—and the third, On the Mode of Defence against an Invasion. Admitting the possibility of Invasion, he contends that prudence requires that we should be prepared for it, and leave nothing to the power of fortune. Among other means, he advises the appointment of a Council of War, composed of the most intelligent and experienced military and naval officers; with the *exception* of the Commander in Chief, the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Master General of the Ordnance, the Secretaries of State and of War, whose thoughts ought not to be diverted from the laborious duties of their respective situations.

On the subject of training the National Levies, he insists on the necessity of teaching the recruit to load and fire properly, quickly, and *with good aim*; and he reprobates the practice of *platoon-firing*, in which the attention is directed from the important object of doing

execution to the parade of making a grand explosion. As the terror of fire-arms is now greatly abated, and as close combat will be brought more and more to decide the battle, he strongly recommends the use of pikes; and particularly that every company should consist of a certain number of pikemen; because the pike, he observes, 'for close fight, is incomparably superior to the bayonet, which is an unwieldy weapon, and of such small length, that the front rank only can use it with much advantage.' He adopts the idea of Marshal Saxe respecting the impropriety of halting to fire before the charge is made: but he does not, with him, reprobate all firing on a close attack. Of the discharge from the musket he would avail himself; and that it may not fail of effect, he advises that the firing should be at the moment when the soldier arrives at the enemy.

This writer adopts the opinion of a great commander, who said that battles were the resources of weak Generals; and therefore, in his third chapter, he recommends, in case the enemy should land, that a decisive engagement should be avoided, and that we should pursue the system of harrassing him by incessant attacks on his flanks, rear, and every salient point, night and day; so that he shall be constantly harrassed, alarmed, fatigued, and at length exhausted. From an examination of the nature of the country, as covered with inclosures, he infers that England is fully capable of resisting an Invasion, and of gradually destroying the hostile army. Adverting to the case of Ireland, he suggests that, as a matter of good policy, the Catholic clergy should be subsisted at the national expence; and that the Catholics should be restored to their civil rights, in order that there may be an *union of mind and of condition*, as well as of Government, between the two islands.

Art. 17. *Observations on a Ministerial Pamphlet*, entitled "Cursory Remarks of a Near Observer upon the State of Parties during the Administration of the Right Hon. Henry Addington." By an Anxious Spectator. 8vo. 2s. Ginger.

Politicians, like Papists, have their favourite Saints. Mr. Pitt is the god of this writer's idolatry, whose vindication is undertaken with all the enthusiasm of religious zeal, against the direct charges and sly insinuations of the Near Observer. It is contended that the faith and consistency of the late ministry are not impeached by the cold assistance which they give to their successors; that their engagement to support was not unconditional; and that duty to their country prohibited them from abetting measures of rashness and feebleness, such as the peace, and the conduct of government towards Ireland. How far this comes home to the exact state of the case when Mr. Pitt resigned and Mr. Addington accepted the office of Prime Minister, we cannot undertake to decide. When the parties themselves are silent, conjecture labours in vain to supply adequate evidence: but, while writers only speculate, they can display their spleen and their partiality. This Anxious Spectator disclaims the mean practice charged on the Near Observer, of insulting by *insinuation*: but he soon forgets himself, and conveys his contempt in tales and low comparisons. One specimen will suffice:

'Should

'Should the servants who are sent to keep places at the theatre take it into their heads to invite some of their fellow servants and low acquaintance to go with them to see the play, and when the family come to the box door, was *Mister John* or *Mister Henry* to address his master and mistress thus, "Pray walk in and be seated, this is only Mr. ——, valet de chambre to Lord ——, that is Mr. ——, coachman to the Marquis of ——, this is Mr. ——, butler to his Grace, and this Mr. ——, cook and principal taster to the Right Reverend ——; step in, Sir, walk in, Madam, you will find them very good company, perfectly civil, and though not the *best spoken* men in the world, I assure you they have a very pretty taste for theatricals, and understand stage effect; I am sorry that there is not room for *all* your company, but we will do all we can to accommodate:" I leave the reader to judge what must be the astonishment of the party and the feelings of the master on hearing such an address; the gallery, indeed, may be amused by the joke, but the interests of the theatre must be ruined, were the manager to suffer it to pass with impunity. This may be applied by those who reflect that "All the world's a stage."

That there are circumstances in Mr. Addington's proceedings relative to the Peace which subject him to some censure, it is as difficult to deny as that Mr. Pitt's resignation still remains a mystery. If the latter was really occasioned by his pledge on the Catholic question, it does him honour; and it is a source of the deepest regret that the only effectual remedy for an evil which threatens the safety of the empire has not been yet applied.

Art. 18. *Regulations of Parochial Police;* combined with the Military and Naval Armaments to produce the Energy and Security of the whole Nation. The 4th Edition, corrected and enlarged. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The first edition of this sensible pamphlet, which appeared in 1797, was not overlooked by us (See M. R. vol. xxii. p. 463, N. S.). This enlarged impression furnishes some additional remarks on the vengeance which rankles in the heart of Bonaparte towards this country; and on the means of foiling his rage, and of preserving order and tranquillity in every parish, while the armed force is employed in combating the invaders. The author of this pamphlet, we are told, could appeal (if that appeal were consistent with their safety) to several of the most respectable Members of the Senate, Tribunate, and Legislature of France, on whose minds the perpetual language of Bonaparte, since his elevation, concerning the necessity of destroying England, has always 'dropped like corrosive poison.' As we possess, however, the spirit and ample means of resistance, we require only order and discipline to defeat any hostile attack of the enemy. This writer does not seem so much alarmed at the idea of the force which may be brought against us, as at that of the disorganization, plundering, and atrocious violence which would succeed on the removal of all our armed force from the interior to fight the enemy on their landing. Revolutionary France, he thinks, furnishes us a *warning* in this case, though not an *example*. He expresses his fears of the multitude of wandering servants, which would then be let

loose on the public; and he reminds his readers that, of all destructive and ravenous monsters, the most cruel and insatiable is the unrestrained populace of an opulent and corrupt society.

The outline of the plan of prevention was given in our former article.

Art. 19. *The Parallel between England and Carthage, and between France and Rome examined.* By a Citizen of Dublin. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

With the enemy, this is a favourite comparison; and Frenchmen represent the present war as a struggle between commercial and territorial, or between physical and artificial strength: but this is by no means a correct statement of the case. We trust that we may say, we unite in our character the valour of the Romans, with the commercial spirit of the Carthaginians. Our natural resources, all things considered, may be called equal to those of the enemy; and our military character cannot, with the shadow of justice, be represented as inferior to theirs. It is politic, however, to remove the impression which France is endeavouring to make on the minds of men so much to our disadvantage. We possess not the Carthaginian character, tread not in their steps, nor do we expect their destiny. France has never obtained a signal victory over us at sea; and she never dared, in any negociation for peace, so far to insult the high and independent spirit of Britons, as to propose the surrender of our floating bulwarks. The author of this pamphlet shews that France greatly resembles Rome in her sanguinary ambition and perfidy of character; and, at the same time, he proves that Great Britain has more powerful means of resisting the ambition of the one, than Carthage possessed for resisting the other. Unlike the Carthaginians, we depend not for defence on mercenaries; unlike the Carthaginians, we retain the superiority at sea; unlike the Carthaginians, we are not divided by factions, but, thank God! firmly united in the hour of our country's danger. *Delenda est Carthago* is then an idle threat.

Art. 20. *The substance of a Speech intended to have been spoken in the House of Lords,* November 22, 1803. By R. Watson, Lord Bishop of Landaff. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

As this venerable ecclesiastic stands deservedly high in the public opinion for sound judgment, united with extensive knowledge, and for an ardent zeal to promote the general welfare, combined with the most enlarged and liberal sentiments, his thoughts on the present state of our affairs will be peculiarly acceptable to numbers of his countrymen. We are glad, therefore, that though his domestic affairs did not permit him to leave the philosophical retirement of Calgarth-Park, to attend his public duty in Parliament, he has, in a speech *intended to have been spoken,* addressed himself through the press to the nation at large. Dr. Watson vindicates the justice of the war, on a ground which he occupied in a thesis forty-five years ago, when he was a *Soph* at Cambridge, against the authority of Grotius, taking the *affirmatur* on the following question:—*Jure Gentium arma recte sumuntur, ad imminuendam crescentem potentiam, quæ nimium aucta nocere potest.* Passing over affronts and slight injuries, he rests the

justification of the war on the dangerous aggrandizement of the enemy. He contemplates the military ardour and unanimity of the country with satisfaction, and kindly endeavours, by his patriotic advice, to give effect to our present exertions. To avert from ourselves the mischiefs which impend over other nations, to extricate the country from danger, and to frustrate all the attempts of the enemy, he advises that those who are included in the first class of the Defence Bill should be not only called out and trained to the use of arms, as a temporary expedient, but that this should be continued as a permanent measure; that we seriously undertake the liquidation of the National Debt; that we make a provision for the Catholic Clergy in Ireland; and that we and unite the Dissenters in England firmly to the Government by the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts. 'If,' says he, 'you would make men good subjects, deal gently with their errors; give them time to get rid of their prejudices, and especially take care to leave them no ground for complaint.' This is sound advice, which equally does honour to the Bishop's head and to his heart: but alas! statesmen are not always to be persuaded that justice is wisdom.

Art. 21. *Observations suggested by a Pamphlet entitled "The Question, Why do we go to War? Temperately discussed according to the Official Correspondence."* In a Letter to a Friend. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

In this neat and dispassionate reply to the abovementioned able pamphlet, the writer does not deem it necessary, in order to support the side which he has espoused, to heap abusive epithets on his opponent, and to represent him as a traitor and partisan of France. After a perusal of this little tract, it is difficult not to assent to the conclusion at which the author arrives; namely, that the highly momentous struggle could no longer have been deferred. We are of opinion, however, that he would have found his task easier, had he placed the question on more general grounds, and connected it less with the case made by ministers. We were glad to find a gentleman extensively engaged in commerce hold out consoling views respecting that essential source of our power, and representing it as secure of ultimately triumphing over the hostility of our rival.

Art. 22. *The Correspondence between His Majesty, the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, and Mr. Addington;* on the Offer of Military Service made by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 8vo. 1s. Miller.

Though we do not venture to offer an opinion on the subject at issue between these Royal Correspondents, we shall not be accused of exceeding the limits of our duty by observing that, as far as good writing is concerned, the palm of victory unquestionably belongs to the Prince of Wales; whose letters are beautiful and striking pieces of composition.

Art. 23. *Observations occasioned by the Pamphlet called "Cursory Remarks;"* or, A Comparative Glance at the Political Merits of the Right Hon. H. Addington and Mr. Pitt. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

This writer takes the same side as the "Near Observer:"—but, instead of employing keen and elegant satire against the ex-minister, he

he reminds us of the conduct of the Roman mob towards the degraded Sejanus. Mr. Pitt is roughly charged with baseness, profligacy, arrogance, and jesuitical tricking; his return to office is deprecated; and the hopes of the nation are represented as fixed on the judgment and moderation of the present Minister. Mr. Pitt will not be wounded, nor Mr. Addington flattered, by such Observations.

POETRY.

Art. 24. *Britannicus to Buonaparte.* An Heroic Epistle, with Notes. By Henry Tresham, Esq. R.A. 4to. 4s. Hatchard.

Facit indignatio versum.—Glowing with resentment at the daring attempt of the French Government to invade the liberty of the British Press, Mr. Tresham exchanges the pencil, as not being fully adequate to express his feelings, for the pen; and in nervous and flowing lines, he pours forth the full tide of his indignation on Bonaparte: whose life is reviewed by the poet, and the dark traits in whose history are thrown on the canvas with striking prominence. Mr. Peltier finds in Mr. T. a most strenuous advocate and warm admirer; and the Consul is stigmatized for exerting his gigantic power to crush so humble an individual.

'And what is PELTIER?—Fated to endure
The heart-struck pangs no suasive skill can cure:
From soft endearments, sweet affiance torn,
Down the fell tide of regal ruin borne;
His drain'd exchequer yields no vast supplies,
Suborns no statists, marshals no allies,
Nor fleets, nor elements obey his nod,
PELTIER is neither NELSON nor a God *!'
The bridled monarch of the frighted plains
The distant shout of impotence disdains;
The towering eagle stoops not from the sky,
Arm'd with JOVE's thunder, to destroy a fly;
Then why should great BRIAREUS, where he stands,
Grasping at empire with ten thousand hands,
Snatch precious moments from aspiring toil,
To dull the flame of one poor poet's oil?'

Pope, in his "Eloisa to Abelard," has beautifully described the advantages which result from the art of writing, in the passage beginning with *Heaven first taught Letters*. Mr. Tresham, if not exhibiting lines equally captivating, has at least been very happy in displaying the benefits which mankind receive from the discovery of printing, and the Freedom of the Press:

'What mighty magic wakes the latent springs
Of conscious crime? Lends Wit's keen arrows, wings?
And moves the CONSUL 'midst his guards to feel,
A pointed diction more than pointed steel?
Yes—'tis a magic none but fools despise,
The wond'rous charm of speaking to the eyes—

* This line discovers strong symptoms of the *bathos*, a disease with which poetry is often infected.

Of

Of painting sound—embodying thought at will—
An art that sheds eternity on skill,
Binds the vast range of nature to its plan,
And gives almost omnipotence to man.
Aided by Learning's magic tube we rise
To purer transports of primeval skies;
Bask in the splendour of the milky way,
The brighter zodiac of the soul survey,
Stars, long since set, relume night's sable throne,
And pour a blaze to sordid sense unknown.'

'Hail! art celestial, rival gift of tongues,
The framing words without the aid of lungs,
That yields the minstrel on his couch of care
Arms and the means to wage eternal war!'

'The glorious Freedom of the Press dilates
The heaven of Science to benighted states,
And men and angels with sublime acclaim
Bind letter'd brows with wreaths of deathless fame.'

On the subject of the Invasion, the poet, with the soul of Britannicus, knows no sensations of fear, but scornfully dares the Enemy to make the threatened experiment:

'Come, fierce DESPOILER—all thy terrors bring—
Unleash thy Blood-hounds—give thy Harpies wing—
In wrath sublime chastise a wild of waves,
And shackle Neptune like Parisian slaves:
Come, and BRITANNIA'S mines of wealth behold,
Starve at her banquets of forbidden gold,
And learn, aghast, with an erected ear,
High mettled BRITONS look with scorn on Fear:
Of gentlest manners, and of noblest mind,
A race illustrious, of the lion kind;
Slow to chastize, yet, roused to mortal fight,
Brave, unrelenting, and of matchless might.'

Besides the notes subjoined to the text, this poet and artist has given a frontispiece which represents the image of *Fame* inscribing on a shield the memorable actions of conspicuous characters, (an idea borrowed from Trajan's pillar,) and under it is a picture of Bonaparte addressing himself to the river god Nilus, (who is drawn after the famous statue of Bernini at Rome,) whom he intreats to receive and shelter him on his return from his disastrous Syrian expedition.

FAST-DAY SERMONS, *19th October* 1803.

Art. 25. *The Sentiments proper to the present Crisis*:—Preached at Bridge-street, Bristol. By Robert Hall, A.M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Button.

By former specimens of this preacher's abilities, we were induced to expect, on the present occasion, a discourse of no ordinary character; and we have not been disappointed. Talents and ingenuity are so eminently conspicuous in the sermon before us, that it cannot fail to excite more attention than is usually bestowed on compositions of this class: but we cannot admit the genuineness of all the author's

author's reasoning, nor subscribe to the accuracy of every sentiment. Mr. Hall has made many judicious observations, and suggested various important sentiments, which are well adapted to the present crisis; and which, though not absolutely new, are elucidated and enforced by a clear and nervous eloquence: but, when he enters into the field of controversy, his zeal in combating certain erroneous speculations seems to betray him into rashness, and to the substitution of declamation for calm argument. If we agree with him in believing that 'the welfare of a nation depends much less on the refined wisdom of the few, than on the manners and characters of the many;' that, in the contemplation of national sins, we are not merely to consider iniquities tolerated by the law, and to transfer our vices to ourselves; that it is the duty of Christian preachers to condemn laxness in morality, and to resist all those theories which tend to subvert its true foundation; yet we cannot, under the idea of reprobating even 'unholy speculations,' approve of any stigma being cast on philosophical inquiries into the principles of virtue; nor of attempting to discourage ethical research, by enveloping the subject of morals in the veil of mystery. Why should it be deemed 'a presumptuous curiosity to inspect the foundations of Christian virtue?' May we 'invariably appeal with safety, without looking abroad, to a moral impress on the mind?' Is there no such thing as an erroneous conscience? We most cordially admit that 'we need not seek a deeper foundation for our duties than the *will* of the Supreme Being:' but are there not cases in which we are forced to consider the principles of the Divine Government, in order to learn the Divine will? Do not the scriptures encourage us to be moral accountants, and urge us to virtue, on the ground of its being expedient and useful? Do they not even call on us to calculate its profits and advantages?—For our own part, we cannot perceive the mischief which Mr. Hall apprehends from inquiries respecting the foundations of virtue, nor admit that 'they are laid too deep for our scrutiny.'

As an *argumentum ad hominem*, we shall pass to observe that, if our duties are to be resolved into the *will* of God, how can Mr. H. with any consistency exhort to the observance of the Christian Sabbath as a religious duty? Is there any divine command for this purpose? The 4th Commandment, if obligatory on Christians, enjoins the observance of Saturday; and where is the order in the Scriptures for changing it to the First day of the week? We do not put these questions to dispute the propriety of a day of religious rest: but we would observe to Mr. Hall, that the duty rests here in a great measure on its expediency or utility, and not on any positive and express command in the Christian divine code.

It is of as much importance for the purpose of religion to shew what the Gospel really contains, as it is to prove its authenticity. By these means, we may hope to learn the genuine duties and imbibe the spirit of Christianity: but unbelievers will not be much enlightened by being informed that 'Infidelity is nothing more than a noxious spawn bred in the stagnant marshes of Christianity.' This metaphor, like some of Mr. Burke's allusions, conveys no clear picture to the mind. In no map of religious geography, were the *stagnant marshes of Christianity* ever laid down.

On

: On the subject of the threatened Invasion, Mr. Hall's thoughts are excellent. He considers it 'as an happy circumstance that the contest did not take this shape at an earlier period, while many were deceived by certain specious pretences of liberty into a favourable opinion of our enemies' designs.'

Before we take our leave, we must rectify a singular error into which the author has fallen, by assigning a sentiment respecting the influence of the Tragic Muse to Mrs. H. More, which is well known to belong to Aristotle. The passage, which occurs in his Poetics, is as follows:

Ἔστιν οὖν τραγῳδία μίμησις πράξεως σπουδαίας, καὶ δι' ἐλέου καὶ φόβου περαίνουσα τὴν τοιούτων παθημάτων κάθαρσιν.

Art. 26. *Unanimity and Energy in the present Crisis:*—Delivered in the Dissenting Chapel at Lympson, Devon. By the Rev. Thomas Jervis. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Mr. Jervis pleads the unprecedented situation of his country as an excuse for the complexion of his discourse, but its contents require no kind of apology. Far from abandoning himself to loose, intemperate, and angry declamation, he preserves the character of the Christian in the midst of the tempest which agitates our political horizon. Not having been furnished with proper documents, he does not pretend to decide on the origin of the war, nor to determine whether it might or might not be avoided; nor does he endeavour to inflame our passions against the enemy, by fulminating on him every epithet of abuse and calumny. He does justice to the talents, intrepidity, and temperance of that extraordinary man with whom we have to contend, while he properly stigmatizes his pride, ambition, and dissimulation; his disregard to the claims of humanity and freedom; and his deep-rooted envy of the power and prosperity of Great Britain. By such a description of his character we are put on our guard, as by reflecting on the force at his disposal we are apprized of the arduous nature of the conflict: but Mr. Jervis assures us that a nation, like our own, energetic and united in asserting its independence against an invading foe, is taught by various facts in history not to despair. The preacher contends that common contributions to the aid of Government, and to the public safety, demand in return a common participation of political privileges; and in course that a total repeal of all penal laws on account of religion should take place. From reflections on the horrors and desolating calamities of war, Mr. J. looks forwards through the chearful medium of prophecy to a future period, when all bloody conflicts between nations will terminate, and iron be employed for no other purposes than to enrich and fertilize the world. How much has Christianity to accomplish before this bright period will arrive!

CORRESPONDENCE.

In our account of "*Poems by Peter Bayley, Esq.*" Rev. for October last, we intimated a suspicion that the name thus given in the title page was only a *nom de guerre*; a conjecture which occurred to us solely from a resemblance which we thought we traced in the author's manner, to the compositions of a gentleman who had recently presented the world with some poems of a fictitious *Thomas Little*,

Little, Esq. It is now in our power, however, to inform our readers that we were deceived in this idea, and that the poems of Mr. Bayley are given to the public under the proper designation of their real author. We learn, also, that the remarkably erroneous rhyme, noticed in our first extract from this volume, was a *mis-print*, and that for *brave* we should read *sage*. We have pleasure in rendering justice, on both these points, to this ingenious writer.

Had Mr. Capel Lofft perused the ingenious Memoir of Mr. Tytler, of which we gave a concise account in our last number (p. 296), he would have found a solution of the difficulties mentioned in the letter with which he has favoured us. If Laura was born, lived, died, and was buried near Vaucluse, the tomb in the church of the Minories at Avignon could not have been that of Laura; and the inscription M. L. M. I., the Sonnet, and the Medallion, if intended for Laura, must have been forgeries. That forgeries were practised, to convey the notion that she lived and died at Avignon, is evident from the MS. passage in the Ambrosian Virgil; which must either be allowed to be spurious, or numberless passages in Petrarch's works must be condemned as interpolations: an alternative on which few critics would have any hesitation to decide. Mr. Tytler's Essay appears to us very satisfactory, and we recommend it to Mr. Lofft's perusal, confident that it will reward him for his trouble. Monks have not found it a very difficult task to impose on monarchs; and the visit of Francis I. to the tomb in the church at Avignon is no proof that it contained Laura's remains.

The *motives* of '*a Clonmel reader*' are intitled to our sincere acquiescence and cordial thanks: but we can scarcely allow that the fault which he imputes to us deserved the *fine* imposed on us by his letter. We shall, however, endeavour to profit by his correction, as much as circumstances will permit.

We are much obliged by the letter of "*a Constant Reader for 40 years*," as well as gratified by his signature; and we shall pay due respect to his information.

The inquiry on the subject of horology is not properly addressed to us: but we believe that no such work exists as will answer the description given by our correspondent.

In reply to several letters requesting early notice of various works, we can only say, as we have so frequently said before, that each must take its turn; which must be subject to contingencies.

On searching respecting the *Pedestrian Excursions*, we find that we have not yet seen the object of our fair correspondent's inquiry.

Mr. D. L. has been misinformed.

☞ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published with the Number for *January*.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Histoire des Suisses ou Helvetiens*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of the Swiss or Helvetians from the most remote Period to the present Time. By P. H. MALLET, Professor in the Universities at Upsal, Cassel, &c. 4 Vols. 8vo. Geneva. 1803.

How fondly has the mind been accustomed to direct its flights to Swisserland, and to contemplate in imagination its interesting inhabitants, the children of nature, brave, independent, and happy; dwelling among stupendous heights, fearful precipices, enchanting views, and amid scenery which exhibited matchless contrasts! Alas! that Swisserland which delighted the traveller, and whither cultivated fancy roved with so much pleasure, exists no longer! Modern Helvetia, the insulated province of France, occupies indeed the same space in the map which that happy country formerly filled, but it is a different object, and calls forth very different associations.—The worthy author of these volumes appears, from a passage in his preface, to have anticipated these feelings in his readers. His work, he informs us, was nearly finished while Swisserland yet enjoyed all its lustre and independence, under the laws of its antient confederacy: but it is now presented under other circumstances; and the recollections which it awakens, however painful they may be, must highly excite the reader's attention, and are calculated deeply to instruct him.

M. MALLET enumerates, among the qualifications with which he sat down to compose the work before us, a knowlege of the language of the country, a long residence in it, and close

intimacy with those of its inhabitants who were most conversant with its history, its laws, and its policy. His aim, in this performance, has been to note chiefly the circumstances that led to the formation of that illustrious confederacy, which gradually attained so wide an extent, which established itself by victories, and which strengthened itself by its wisdom, justice, and valour: virtues which ensured to it happiness and glory for nearly five centuries. The origin and progress of this once mighty league, therefore, with the events which have had an influence on its fate, and which tend to illustrate its constitutions, its laws, its character, its moral and political principles, form the subject of this History; and the author professes to omit all that is of a more confined nature, all that refers to local transactions, to particular cities, and to individual families. The plan is liberal and judicious, and the execution is in all respects worthy of it; since the narrative is elaborate and well digested, and appears with every advantage which a dispassionate estimate of things, a luminous arrangement, and finished composition, can impart to it.

This literary veteran, however, still adheres to the error which pervaded his *Histoire de Dannemarc*, and into which he was led by following Cluverius and Pelloutier; viz. that of regarding the Celts and Goths as originally the same people. This mistake was fully exposed by the very learned and able translator of the Introduction to the above-mentioned History; but from a regard to M. MALLET's candour and ingenuousness, we must require ourselves to believe that he has never seen this correction. The mistake does not materially affect any part of the present performance; which must add very considerably to the reputation which the author derived from his former valuable work.

Though the principal part of this production is devoted to the object before stated, a considerable portion of the first volume is employed in narrating the share of the inhabitants of antient Helvetia in those atchievements, which proved fatal to so many Roman armies in the wars waged by the Cimbri. The writer next describes their discomfiture by Cæsar, and then relates the principal events which befel them while they formed a province of Rome, the sufferings which they underwent in the contests for the empire that arose on the death of Nero, and the prosperity which they enjoyed under the Flavian family. He afterward traces their history while successively beneath the rule of the Alemanni and Burgundians, the kings of the Franks, the second kingdom of Burgundy, and the Emperors of Germany. If he dwells but shortly on the early part of the life of the famous Rodolph of Hapsbourg, he very satisfactorily

torily details the circumstances which determined the policy of the beneficent house of Zœringen; and, agreeably to his promise, he points out the elements whence arose the confederacy which is the theme of his work, however remotely and widely they lie scattered.

In the division of the provinces which Augustus made with the Senate, Gaul, including Helvetia, was one of those which he reserved for his own cognizance; and in forming this selection, he had particularly in view the military forces which its situation rendered necessary, and of which he would have the disposal. The civil government was administered by Lieutenants immediately dependent on the Emperor, who were the commanders in chief of the forces, and invested with the supreme judicial authority. The financial department was intrusted to officers denominated the procurators of Cæsar; who were generally freedmen, devoid of all shame, and guilty of boundless oppressions. The multiplied imposts charged on the Helvetians rendered them dear purchasers of the fine arts, the sciences, the civilization, and the improved police, which it was the boast of the Romans to have introduced among them. An inscription found in the ruins of the antient Vindonissa commemorates Manlius Cordus, who had been a receiver of the taxes, and gives him the surname of *Rapax*. The modern Helvetians have been visited by exactors in no degree inferior to Cordus: but we believe that they have been less ingenuous, and have not so honestly designated themselves as the Roman pillager did.—The author then ingeniously demonstrates that, as a state extends its territories, the burthens of the people proportionately increase; and he concludes with this important reflection, the application of which no one can be at a loss to guess; 'such then, for the greater part of a nation, is the inevitable result of those conquests which at first so much flatter its pride, which it hails with exultation, and which in reality prepare for it misery, slavery, and humiliation.'

In a later division of Gaul by Augustus, Helvetia formed a part of the great Lyonese Province, of which Lyons was the capital. When flattery had exhausted all human praise on the first Emperor of Rome, it raised him to divine honours; a temple was erected to him in the above-mentioned city; and a magnificent altar was consecrated to him, adorned with sixty columns, constructed at the expence of so many conquered nations, whose names were engraved on them, together with the victories of the present deity which had led to their subjugation. Three hundred augurs, and sixty soothsayers, exercised the functions of the worship of the Goddess of Rome, and of the God Augustus. A Gallic Prince was the first of these

new priests: an office which was in great request, and was sometimes purchased at a high price. Thus ended, in scenes of the most degrading servitude, the history of the liberty of Rome!

M. MALLET extols the felicity of the whole Roman world, in which Helvetia shared, under the beneficent reign of Adrian. This Emperor, he says, has not had the good fortune of having his services recorded by historians worthy of him. He well merited the glorious title of the *Restorer of the Gauls*, which was bestowed on him by the people. He was learned, and he was a philosopher: but his philosophy was that which loves to preserve, and not to destroy and change every thing. Although brave, he avoided war, because he regarded it as an obstacle to the good which he desired to effect, and because it was the source of all the ills which afflict humanity; and, far from aspiring to new conquests, he restored a part of those which his predecessor Trajan had made in the East.

In the succeeding passage, we meet with an account of the origin of a people who, in recent days, have seemed desirous to emulate the qualities which distinguished them at the period when history first takes them up; without excepting even the barbarism and harsh usages which then belonged to them, but which were rather features of the time than those of the people:

'About the middle of the third century, under the reign of Gordian, we first hear of the Franks: but from that period they act an important part in the history of the calamities of Europe, and in that of the decline of the empire. Their language, their laws, their religion, their manners, and their usages, prove them to have been of German origin. Great obscurity prevails in regard to their first abodes, because, like all uncivilized nations, they led a wandering life: but they are supposed formerly to have dwelt between the Elbe and the Weser, and to have advanced towards the banks of the lower Rhine previously to the time when the barbarians began to inundate Gaul. They consisted of various tribes, whose names disappeared to make room for that of Franks, the origin of which is unknown. Under Valentinian, they established themselves in Belgium, and on the left bank of the Rhine. History mentions the names of several of their kings, or chiefs, who preceded Clovis. The latter laid the foundation of a very extensive kingdom.'

The author gives what he calls a *coup d'œil* of this country, a short time before the elevation of the House of Hapsbourg to the empire. He observes that the Dukes of Zœringen, who had been long regarded as the most powerful lords in the country, were become extinct. Next to them ranked the Counts of Burgundy, of Savoy, of Hapsbourg, and of Kybourg; and scarcely inferior to these, were those of Rapperschwyl,

chwyl, Tokenbourg, and Neuchatel: from the latter of which the House of Orange derives its origin. Among the Prelates, the most distinguished were the Bishops of Lausanne, Sion, Bâle, Coire, and the Abbot of St. Gall. Among the cities, Zuric held the first place, for it was the staple of the commerce between France and Italy. Constance was a Bishop's see; the Emperor often resided there; an imperial governor held his tribunal there, in which justice was administered according to the written law of the Germans; his decrees were confirmed by the people; and the subjects enjoyed the privilege of being tried by their Peers. Bâle was the largest city in Helvetia. Soleure and Schaffhausen were free and flourishing. Berne was distinguished by the possession of the most liberal franchises. The Counts of Savoy were rising to a great power in the south of Helvetia. The inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz, Underwalden, and the upper Hasli, formed communities which enjoyed great privileges, and were governed by magistrates of their own. The extinction of the House of Suabia, and the consequent feeble state into which the empire fell, which continued till the accession of Rodolph, greatly favoured the attempts at independence made by the chiefs and free communities of Helvetia, as well as those of other powers.

M. MALLET's account of the Emperor Rodolph, and of the origin and formation of the confederacy, is very correct, perspicuous, and satisfactory: but it is less full and masterly than that which was given by Mr. Planta in his history of the same country *.

The author bestows great praise on the early part of the reign of Rodolph: but he informs us that, as he grew old, his children, taking advantage of his weakness, instigated him to commit faults which tarnished the glory of his better days. His son Albert induced him to constrain the Abbots, the great Lords, and the cities, to alienate in his favour wholly, or in part, their domains, rights, and revenues, at a price fixed by himself; and he persecuted the Abbot of St. Gall, whose friendship he had formerly esteemed himself highly fortunate to engage, put him under the ban of the empire, and was his implacable enemy till his death. This conduct had excited great discontent in Helvetia, but the behaviour of his successors was such that it changed those murmurs into regrets. The little cantons, being well acquainted with the character of Albert, anticipated the attacks which would be made on their rights and privileges, and prepared to meet the outrage. It seems that a sort of confederacy existed between the little states of Uri, Schwitz, and Un-

* See M. Rev. Vol. xxii. N. S. p. 161. 405.

derwalden, previously even to this time; and on the occasion of Rodolph's death it was solemnly renewed: while the reputation of Albert for ambition, hauteur, and severity, occasioned like precautions to be taken in other places to oppose his designs. Having on this account also lost the imperial diadem, he was engaged in a war with the empire: but being successful over the newly elected Emperor Adolphus, his rival, whom he slew in battle with his own hand, he thus regained the splendid prize of which his pride and overbearing conduct had deprived him.

On being invested with the imperial dignity, Albert endeavoured, by specious offers and fair promises, to induce the little cantons to hold under him in right of his hereditary dominions, and not as head of the empire. They sent their answer in these words by Werner of Attinghausen, Landamman of Uri; "We acknowlege, and we shall never forget, that the Emperor Rodolph always shewed himself towards us as a just chief, and true to his engagements. His children may always count on our gratitude: but we are resolved to continue to be what our ancestors were. The Emperor knows our rights, let him confirm them as his father did."—This communication was ill received by Albert; and Gessler and Berenger, natives of the country, but neither loved nor esteemed, were appointed by him, the one the governor, the other imperial judge of the cantons. The oppressions of which these men were guilty, and the insults offered to individuals of respectability, occasioned the conferences between Walter Furst of Allinghausen, a rich proprietor of Uri, Werner Stauffach of Schwitz, and Arnold Melchtal of Underwalden, which led to the memorable association in the field of Grutli. The engagements there formed shew the simplicity, integrity, and general worth of these heroic persons, and prove that there have lived men not less capable of atchieving liberty than worthy of enjoying it. Among other stipulations, they bound themselves, as far as it was possible, to avoid shedding the blood of the governors, or that of their families and their officers; it being their sole desire, as they declared, to ensure to themselves, and to transmit to their posterity, the liberty which they had inherited from their fathers. The insurrection was fixed for the first day of the new year (1308), and its object was attained without difficulty. Berenger, having escaped, was taken by the conspirators, who led him and his train to the frontiers, and then dismissed them, doing them no personal injury whatever. The plan of the insurgents, however, had nearly failed by the rashness of William Tell, one of the conspirators; who, having been put in irons by Gessler, slew him. The present

writer

writer maintains the authenticity of the story of Tell's escape from the boat, on the spot where the chapel which bears his name very lately stood. This little edifice, he says, was consecrated in 1358, at which time there were one hundred and fourteen persons alive, who had seen Tell; a fact which must dissipate all the doubts raised with respect to this illustrious man. We should have been glad if he had informed us of the authorities on which he rests this statement. Indeed, the want of references to documents throughout this work is a great defect, for which we are at a loss to account: such attestations afford information as well as satisfaction to studious and inquisitive readers, and ought never to be omitted in performances so valuable as the present; the general correctness of which, however, we would by no means be understood to impeach.

Having described the chapel of William Tell, the author adds; 'this was the state of that venerable pile in 1766, but we are ignorant what has been taken from or added to these monuments of the founder of Helvetic liberty, by the foreign and armed missionaries of *another liberty;* who, after having lavished incense on his memory, came to subvert his labours, to persecute his descendants, and to plunge his country in misery and sorrow.'

The tragic end of Albert, who was slain by his nephew Prince John and other malcontents, averted for a time the storm which threatened the confederates; and the accession of Henry VII. to the empire, who was jealous of the House of Austria, prolonged the calm. This emperor confirmed to them the important privilege of holding immediately of the empire, (*an.* 1309.) and that of not being cited before foreign tribunals; and thus were they in fact absolved from all responsibility on account of their insurrection against the governors of the Duke of Austria. Henry even went farther, and gave his express approbation to their conduct towards their late tyrannical magistrates.—The quiet enjoyed by the three cantons, however, was now approaching to a close. Leopold of Austria no longer suppressed his indignant feelings; his threats were loud; his preparations were formidable; all his vassals in Alsace, Suabia, Argovia, and in other parts of Helvetia, as far as the Oberland and the very frontiers of Underwalden, were commanded to join his standard; and they were not backward in obeying the summons. Zuric, and the Abbey of Einsedlen, contributed to swell the bands which were to overwhelm the brave confederates. Mediators interposed their friendly offices, and Leopold deigned to make proposals of accommodation to those whom he represented as his revolted subjects: but in these offers they discerned only slavery ill disguised, and therefore they rejected them; at

the same time declaring that they were disposed to live in peace with the Duke, notwithstanding the numerous subjects of complaint which they had against him, but that they would neglect no means of defending themselves if he attacked them, full of confidence in the protection which heaven would yield to the justice of their cause. Not doubting that their destruction was determined, they made every preparation in their power, and resolved to sell their lives at a dear rate. The confederate forces were thirteen hundred, while those of the invaders were reckoned at twenty thousand. Leopold marched on the side of Zug; and Rodolph Reding of Schwitz, an experienced soldier, weakened by age, but whose wisdom, patriotism, and skill merited the confidence of his countrymen, advised them to seize the heights of Morgarten, which commanded the defile by which the enemy was to enter their territories. The battle, so glorious to the valiant few, which takes its name from that memorable spot, was then fought (Nov. 15, 1315.), the issue and the consequences of which are well known.

The confederates, on the occasion of their late victories, now renewed their alliance, and drew its ties closer together; and M. MALLET very properly directs the attention of his reader to the moderation, the wisdom, and the regard to justice, which regulated these engagements.

Elevated by their victories, by their valour, firmness, and prudence, the confederates were favourably regarded by the Emperor Louis of Bavaria. They waged war against the robbers of the Leventine valley, and made acquisitions of territory; and, which was still more important, the city and district of Lucerne, labouring under the same grievances with the three cantons, adopted their example, threw off the Austrian yoke, and joined the confederacy. Even at this time, the hatred and jealousy between the chieftains and the free communities of Helvetia, which afterward led to such serious consequences, were rising to a great height. It is an important remark, borrowed by the author from another historian, that the Duke of Austria and the Emperor were the means of greatly weakening the aristocratic, and of strengthening the popular interest in Helvetia. He alludes to the measures taken in consequence of the assassination of Albert: when the regicides and their abettors were put under the ban of the empire, while Leopold spared no pains to have the decree carried into execution. He razed the castles, and executed the owners, in every case in which there appeared the shadow of a suspicion that the party had acted in or approved of the murder of his father. This severity, we are told, effected a greater destruction of the nobles than all the wars which followed.

The

The accounts here given of the assassination of Albert and its consequences, of the preparations of Leopold, and of the battle of Morgarten, are very faithful and ample; yet they do not appear to advantage, if contrasted with those which the English reader has it in his power to peruse in the work of Mr. Planta.

Berne had incurred the high displeasure of the Emperor Louis of Bavaria, by refusing to recognize him while the papal sentence of excommunication was in force against him; and nothing less than the annihilation of this proud city could appease his indignation. He was the author of the war which the confederacy of Nobles waged against them, and which was terminated by the glorious battle of Laupen, July 21, 1339. This confederacy was headed by the Count of Nydau, who had acquired high military renown in Palestine; and the Counts of Neuchatel, of Vallengin, of Arberg, of Gruyeres, and of Eberhard, with the powerful Count of Kybourg, all devoted to the Emperor, and entertaining irreconcileable hatred towards Berne, had entered into it: while by the side of the vassals of these haughty chieftains, appeared the burghers of Fribourg, the late allies of Berne. The Bernese neither despised the danger, nor gave themselves up to fear. They professed themselves ready to listen to equitable propositions of peace, but intimated that they should not relax in their preparations to repel force by force; and they called on their allies, several of whom sent them succours. M. MALLET says that their request was powerfully seconded in the little cantons by William Tell and Werner Stauffach, who, though very aged, were still alive: but we think that a note, stating the evidence on which this part of the text stood, would not have been thrown away. The state of Berne appointed Rodolph of Erlach its commander in chief. The day of Laupen, it is well known, was highly fatal to the power of the Nobles: since the Count of Nydau, their leader, the Count of Valengin, the young Count of Savoy, three Counts of the House of Gruyeres, and a number of great lords, fell in the field of battle. The whole country was covered with arms, with horses, with the dead, and with the wounded; and the loss of the Nobles was estimated at fifteen hundred horse, and three thousand foot, while that of Berne was very inconsiderable. The action lasted only two hours.

Berne, valiant in battle, shewed itself not less moderate in the terms of peace which it offered. The House of Neuchatel, which had joined the league of nobles against Berne, (nearly related to its head, the Count of Nydau, who fell at Laupen,) elected the Commander of the Bernese to be the

guardian of the infants of the deceased Count. The brave Erlach accepted the trust, and faithfully discharged it; and thus did these children find a protector in the conqueror of their father, while the state of Berne approved and ratified the arrangement. This singular trait does high honour to all the parties.

The author presents us with an interesting account of the constitution of Zuric; which, he says, was conformable to the model of that of the other cities of the empire, as it had been granted and settled by the Emperor Henry the fowler: whose merit on this account, he thinks, has not been sufficiently felt and acknowleged by posterity. We were greatly struck by his neat description of the progress of a demagogue from the exercise of the arts of base flattery, by which the multitude are captivated, to that of acts of tyranny, by which they are oppressed; as it occurs in the author's masterly account of Rodolph Brun of Zuric. The crimes of this hateful intriguer had, however, one good effect; they occasioned the accession of this powerful city to the Helvetic confederacy.

The policy by which Berne aggrandized itself is impartially and ably stated in the following passage.—It persevered in augmenting its ascendancy over the Nobles in its vicinity, by means opposite in appearance, but really directed to one end. It admitted many to its burghership, and it then protected them against those of their vassals who attempted to shake off their yoke. On the other hand, it lent support to the vassals when the Lord was its enemy. Thus it gave effectual aid to Rinkenberg, its coburgher, who was a governor (under the Emperor) of a great part of the Oberland. The inhabitants of this Alpine country bordering on Berne had leagued with those of Underwalden, in order to recover their liberty. These peasants, sprung from the same stock, and equally valiant with the other confederates, thought themselves equally worthy of freedom; and their efforts to realize it, with the opposition of Berne, which supported the Lord, its coburgher, Rinkenberg, had nearly caused a division among the cantons, as Underwalden wished to emancipate its neighbours of the Oberland. The power of Berne triumphed, the vassals were obliged to submit, and Underwalden was forced to promise never to aid the serfs of Berne, nor those of its coburghers. Berne gained its cause, observes the author; while a brave people, desirous to be free, were unsuccessful.

Speaking of the emperors who reigned at this time, the writer says that the greater part of them ruined their houses in order to acquire the empire, and then ruined the empire in order to raise their houses. They alienated without any scruple its rights and its possessions. This is the case, he adds, of all elective

elective states; and we are not to believe that our ancestors were so ill advised, as is supposed at this day, when they chose to confer hereditary power on their chiefs, notwithstanding the many inconveniences which attend it.

M. MALLET renders justice to the valour and splendid appearance of our countrymen, who, at this period (1375.), under Enguerrand de Coucy, made incursions into Swisserland, and obtained from the Duke of Austria the counties of Kybourg and Thierstein; and he then makes these reflections: 'Thus this illustrious Noble, so powerful and rich, who had commenced the war with an army perhaps not less brave, and at least not less numerous, than that with which Alexander conquered Asia, was reduced to accept as the price of so many efforts, and of so much blood, two lordships, situated far from his country, by no means fertile, and of a very limited extent and revenue.'

Glaris and Zug had already joined the confederacy; and Berne, shortly after the memorable battle of Laupen, threw its weight into the same scale, and thus extended the union to eight cantons: which are often distinguished as the eight antient cantons, because they remained at this number for a hundred and twenty-five years. It is a mistake, says the author, if we regard the Helvetic Confederacy at this time as a system combined with reflection, with the design of pursuing a certain object, and of acquiring in common an enlargement of territory and power. The principal, and almost the sole aim of its founders was the security of their antient rights against the enterprizes of Princes and Nobles. When we speak of independence as the object at which they aimed, it must, if applied to their efforts at this period, be taken in a restricted sense; since the formation of an independent Republican state was not yet in their contemplation. Their league was not even a general, uniform, equal confederacy: it was kept together by conferences, which gave rise to the Helvetic Diets of after days, but which at this date had nothing fixed either as to time or place. There existed no regular organized congress, as foreigners have supposed; who fancied that they saw in Swisserland, in the fourteenth century, another Achæan league, or a federative republic: an association in substance and in name unknown to the Swiss of that æra. It is necessary to be apprized of this fact, in order properly to comprehend the complicated transactions of this country.

In the course of the long contest between the House of Austria and the confederates, we meet with this curious incident. The cause of quarrel having been referred to the Emperor Charles IV. he pronounced a judgment which the Cantons refused to obey. Indignant at this act of disobedience,

ence, he resolved to carry his decree into execution by force of arms. He called out his vassals, marched against Zuric, and invested it with a large army. The chiefs and their followers held their enemy in the utmost contempt, and they regarded themselves as assembled rather to share spoils than to engage in war. How, said they, can four thousand burghers and peasants resist four thousand men in armour, and forty thousand infantry and cavalry? The besieged, however, were not disheartened, but bravely defended themselves, and made many sorties. As little discipline was observed in the imperial camp, the besieged had frequent communications with the besiegers, and they persuaded a part of them that the war in which they had engaged was directly against their own interest; that, if they destroyed Zuric, they would annihilate the right which the states and cities of the empire claimed, of entering into alliances one with another; and that it was notorious that it was against this right exercised by the confederates, that the Emperor and the Princes waged war. They pointed out the alarming progress made by the House of Austria, for whose sake the war was undertaken, from the time in which Rodolph had been a pensioner of their fathers, to the present, when his grandson was seeking the destruction of that city to which his family owed the commencement of its elevation. Why should the states of the empire aid the Duke of Austria to destroy the remains of liberty, and to forge those chains which, in their turn, they would be forced to wear? These insinuations had their effect. Zuric, having thus shaken the fidelity of the soldiers, induced them to take its part, by hoisting on a high tower a standard, exhibiting the black eagle in a field of gold; which was intended to declare to all the world that it was a free and imperial city. At the sight of this flag, an universal commotion took place in the besieging camp. The heated multitude approached the tent of the Emperor, and demanded with loud cries that he should give peace to Zuric, and to its allies. Charles appeared intimidated, adopted the request of his troops, and raised the siege; saying that, as it was the wish of the majority of the army that the cantons should be allowed to enter into alliances among themselves, it was no longer fit to continue a war, of which the sole object was to prevent these compacts.

The Duke of Austria soon felt himself under the necessity of following the example of the Emperor, by refraining from hostilities, and entering into terms with the Cantons.

Though truce succeeded truce, the Cantons were not to be allowed to enjoy their rights in peace, till another war should give a new strength to their title. The House of Austria regarded

garded the confederacy as a barrier which it must break down, in order to subjugate its members one after another. Various causes contributed to rekindle the flames which had been smothered; both sides had been aggressors; and the great houses and the free communities were destined again to refer their cause to the decision of the sword. The question to be determined was not respecting territory and revenue, but whether the nobles should resume their antient authority over the people, or the latter should remain for ever emancipated? Leopold, the Duke of Austria, had very lately triumphed over a confederacy in the empire, far more extensive, but not so well compacted as the Helvetic. Inflamed with rage, and intoxicated with success, he talked only of crushing the insolent confederacy of the Swiss, and of making them expiate their rebellion by severity of punishment. In the course of a few weeks, one hundred and seven Princes, and Lords of Helvetia and Suabia, sent to the Cantons defiances and declarations of war, full of outrage and menace. These messages were successively delivered at the place at which they held their deliberations, in hopes that their threats, renewed almost at every instant, would terrify them: the most rigorous treatment was holden out to them; and their union was termed a horde of villains:—but to insult an enemy is never to conquer him; and it often renders him invincible. Remarks which have already occurred may have prepared the reader to hear that Berne declined a share in this glorious contest, and that the other seven cantons were left alone to face their powerful foe.

The narrative of the battle (June 9, 1386.) which decided the fate of the confederacy, and placed its independence out of all danger in future, flows in the usual perspicuous and interesting manner of the author. Leopold formed his army under the walls of Sempach; it consisted of four thousand picked troops, of princes, lords, and distinguished knights, cased from head to foot in brilliant armour: while the confederates occupied a height defended in part by a wood, and did not exceed fourteen hundred in number. The latter were drawn up in close order, in an angular form; and they made extraordinary efforts to penetrate the Austrian column, but they were vain, and many brave men fell; till Arnold de Winkelried, a knight of the canton of Underwalden, a man of large size and great intrepidity, sprang from the ranks, crying to his companions, "Take care of my wife and children; I go to open a passage for you." He immediately rushed on the enemy, seized as many of the iron heads of the lances as his nervous arms could hold, and, placing them on his broad chest, he drew them

them along with him in falling. By this heroic sacrifice of himself, he ensured the victory to his countrymen; who, passing in a crowd over his body, cast themselves into the opening which he had made, advanced with an irresistible force, and commenced a horrible carnage. Leopold, advised to betake himself to flight, disdained to outlive his defeat; saying, "Can I think of surviving those who have sacrificed their lives for me?" Observing some of his most faithful attendants stretched dead at his feet, he cried out, "Since so many brave men have died, I will die like them with honour." He then threw himself on the ranks of the victors, and was slain by a man of Uri, who did not know him. Of the Austrians two thousand men perished on this memorable day, in which were included six hundred and sixteen nobles, and three hundred and fifty knights, counts, and princes. The confederates lost as many hundreds, among whom was the immortal Winkelried, the Landamman of Uri, the Landamman of Underwalden, and Peterman of Gundoldigen, their General and Avoyer of Lucerne, who expired of his wounds just as victory had declared in favour of his countrymen; and who, with his dying words, advised his fellow-citizens never to continue an Avoyer in office for more than one year.

Introductory to the accounts of the war which the people of Appenzell waged with the Abbot of St. Gall, the author thus describes the face of the country, and the character of its inhabitants:

'The air is keen and pure. In many places, fine pastures, verdant meads, and up-lands cultivated with care, charm the eye of the traveller, who is astonished at the multitude of houses and cottages which are so thickly scattered, and which an extremely crowded population inhabits. The men are healthy, strong, and well made; for the most part honest and open, sensible and lively. Here we see that equality reign, of which so much of late has been said. The people display the pride and coarseness which usually accompany it, but they possess also the advantages and virtues which equality confers on a race who are simple in their manners, strangers to violent passions, and who know neither luxury nor poverty.'

The wonderful and scarcely credible exploits of this brave people are next related. They alone, of all the Swiss tribes, seemed disposed to avail themselves of the revolutionary spirit which the example of the confederates had diffused, in order to extend their power and influence; and had the cantons co-operated with them, or acted on similar maxims, it is not to be conjectured to what extent federative governments might have prevailed.

The author very minutely states the proceedings of the confederacy, on being requested by the Emperor to make war on

the Duke of Austria; with whom, shortly after the battle of Sempach, they had entered into a truce for fifty years; and his reflections on the difficulties which the several cantons made, before they would consent to violate their engagements, are very just and important. The commands of the Emperor, the dispensation granted to them by the council, and the offer of retaining the conquests which they should gain from their antient enemy, overpowered the consciences of the majority of the members of the confederacy. Uri alone resisted the temptation, and refused to share in the rewards which were the fruits of violated faith. In this war against the Duke of Austria, very important acquisitions were made by the powerful members of the confederacy, which gave strength to the whole league, and prepared the way for the great figure which it subsequently displayed in the contests of states and empires.

From the contrasts which M. MALLET so frequently points out between the conduct of the confederates and that of the revolutionists of our days, there can be no doubt that it was one of his objects in this work to read lessons to a neighbouring nation. Certainly, instruction better intitled to respect, as being founded on example and experience, was never pressed on the attention of a people, nor on a people who ever wanted it more: but we are not sanguine enough to hope that, apt as the advice is on the one hand, and requisite as it is on the other, it will receive much notice, and produce much effect.

We have now followed the author through the various revolutions which this singular country has undergone, and have borne him company in his accounts of the confederacy from its cradle, through the periods of its greatest glory, and of nearly its greatest power. Our limits will not allow us to attend him any farther at present; but, in a future article, we shall continue the pleasant task, though probably not at so great a length, because the objects which will present themselves do not boast equal interest with those which we have now contemplated.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Traité Elémentaire de Mineralogie*, &c. *i. e.* An Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy, according to the Principles of Professor *Werner*. By A. J. M. BROCHANT. 2 vols. 8vo. and 4to Atlas. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London.

WE are sorry that circumstances have intervened to delay our account of this work; which, we doubt not, is already known to the generality of English mineralogists, and the

the merit of which we some time since incidentally mentioned, in an article relative to this branch of science. It is now our intention to give a concise view of its contents, for the information of those who have not yet seen it.

The author observes in his preface, that he has been chiefly induced to undertake this publication, by the desire of making his countrymen more fully acquainted with the mineralogical system of *Werner*, the value of which is universally acknowleged throughout Europe. He then points out the various mineralogical works from which *Werner's* principles have been extracted, for the compilation of the book before us, and afterward takes a general view of this science conformably to these principles.

Formerly, mineralogy comprehended every thing which either directly or indirectly related to mineral substances, so that it included the art of working mines, metallurgy, and other branches of information: but at present it is very properly limited to the mere knowlege of minerals. On the plan of *Werner*, mineralogy may be divided into five distinct parts; namely, 1. Oryctognosy, 2. Chemical Mineralogy, 3. Geognosy, more frequently called Geology, 4. Geographical Mineralogy, and 5. Oeconomical Mineralogy. Oryctognosy is, however, that which more particularly receives the appellation of Mineralogy, the object of it being to describe Minerals, to give them fixed denominations, and to arrange them in a systematical order. The present work, therefore, is principally intended to give a full account of Oryctognosy, according to the Wernerian principles.

Oryctognosy is divided into two parts, viz. 1st. That which relates to the description of simple mineral bodies. 2dly. That which concerns those of a mixed nature, or which are evidently not homogeneous. In the description of Mineral Substances, M. *Werner* employs four kinds of characters; viz. External, Chemical, Physical, and Empirical: but he gives the preference to the external characters, because he conceives them to be the most generally useful, and the most immediately applicable to the purposes of Mineralogical Science; the other characters, however, especially the chemical, are frequently employed as auxiliaries. The general or universal external characters are seven in number, 1. Colour, 2. Cohesion, 3. Unctuosity, 4. Cold, 5. Weight, 6. Odour, and 7. Flavour; all of which, having a great number of modifications, are to be employed in the description of Minerals; and, at the same time, recourse must also be had to the *particular* external characters, which,

which, exclusive of their varieties, amount to sixteen species: as follow: 1. external form, 2. external surface, 3. external lustre, 4. internal lustre, 5. fracture, 6. form of the fragments, 7. the separated pieces, 8. transparency, 9. the scratch, 10. the trace, 11. hardness, 12. ductility, 13, tenacity, 14. flexibility, 15. adhesion to the tongue, 16. sound. The modifications of these characters are afterward stated in their proper order.

The general classification of minerals comes next under consideration; the whole being divided into classes, genera, and species. The first class, or that of earths and stones, consists of eight genera. 1. Diamond, 2. Zircon, 3. Silica, 4. Alumina, 5. Magnesia, 6. Lime, 7. Barytes, and 8. Strontia. The second class, comprehending the saline bodies, has four genera, viz. 1. Sulphates, 2. Nitrates, 3. Muriates, and 4. Carbonates. The third class, or the Combustibles, includes three genera. 1. Sulphur, 2. Bitumen, and 3. Graphite. The fourth, or last class, being that of the metals, has nineteen genera, viz. 1. Platina, 2. Gold, 3. Mercury, 4. Silver, 5. Copper, 6. Iron, 7. Lead, 8. Tin, 9. Bismuth, 10. Zinc, 11. Antimony, 12. Cobalt, 13. Nickel, 14. Manganese, 15. Molybdæna, 16. Arsenic, 17. Tungstein, 18. Uranium, and 19. Titanium.

The second part of the systematical arrangement corresponds with the like or second part of Oryctognosy, which relates to the mixed mineral bodies or rocks; and here the characters of their composition, contexture, and formation, are considered. The rocks are divided into five classes, viz. 1. Primitive, 2. Transitionary, 3. Stratiform, 4. Alluvial, and 5. Volcanic; and these classes are again divided into species, subspecies, and varieties: but the first volume conducts us only to the end of the class of earths and stones, terminating at the genus Strontia.

To give our readers some idea of the mode of description employed by M. BROCHANT, after the manner of Professor *Werner*, we have translated the following as an example:

'QUARTZ.

'*Sub-Species.*

'*Bergkristall.—Le Cristal de Roche.*

'*Silex Quarzum Crystallus.*

id. Emm. T. 1, p. 217.—Wid. p. 296.—W. Cronst: p. 111.—Lenz, T. 1, p. 190.—M. L. p. 85.—W. P. p. 235. Quarzum pellucidum crystallisatum, Wall. p. 226. Cristal de Roche, R, d. L. T. 2, p. 70.—id. D. B. T. 1, p. 13. Mountain Crystal. Kirw. p. 241.—Quartz, Lam. T. 2, p. 119. Quarzo, Nap. p. 170.—Quartz-hyalin limpide, etc. Haüy. T.

External Characters.

The colours of rock crystal are, grayish white, yellowish white, pearl gray, ochraceous yellow, vinous yellow, honey yellow, yellowish brown, clove brown, blackish brown, and (although seldom) pale rosy red.

Sometimes internally it exhibits irridescent colours. It is seldom found in a mass, sometimes in the form of pebbles, but almost always crystallized. – The forms of it are—*a.* a prism, with six faces, having one of its bases, or both, furnished with a summit rather sharp, with six faces, corresponding to the lateral faces of the prism. —*b.* a double pyramid, with six faces (the contracted form of the foregoing figure); this is sometimes perfect, sometimes truncated on the borders of the common base; and sometimes three alternating faces in each pyramid are larger than the others, which give to the crystal the appearance of a cube.—*c.* a simple pyramid, very sharp, with six faces, having its apex, and often also its base, terminated by a point of six faces.—There are crystals of all sizes, from very large to extremely small. – The external surface is rough in the rounded pieces or pebbles. The crystals, on the contrary, have the lateral faces of the prism (and of the simple pyramid *c.*) transversely striated; the acute extremities and the double pyramids are smooth; sometimes the faces are covered with a rough coat, which is translucid. The external, but especially the internal, surface is of a bright lustre, like that of glass.—The fracture is perfectly conchoidal, but sometimes lamellated. The fragments are indeterminate, with very sharp edges. – It is diaphanous, or semi-diaphanous: It is hard,—brittle, —easily broken, – and moderately heavy.—The specific gravity is 2,650.

Chemical Characters.

It is totally infusible by the blow-pipe.

Component Parts.

Silica,	93	according to Bergman's Analysis.
Alumina,	6	
Lime,	1	
	100	

Physical Characters.

Two pieces of Rock Crystal rubbed together are phosphorescent in the dark, and afford a peculiar odour, which is rather empyreumatic.

Use.

Rock Crystal, on account of its beautiful transparency and lustre, is employed in jewellery, but it is of small value in comparison with the precious stones.

Situation and Localities.

Rock Crystals are found in groups, which coat the cavities in veins of the primitive rocks, especially granite.—The mountains of Swisserland, Bohemia, Saxony, Hungary, the Pyrenean mountains, and the Alps, contain these crystals: but the most beautiful are brought from Madagascar.

Remarks.

Remarks.

'Many substances are found intermixed with Rock Crystals; such as, Schorl, Amianthus, Strahlstein, Mica, Specular Iron, Nadelstein, &c. &c.—Cavities in these crystals are also observed, which contain a drop of water with air.'

We now come to vol. II. which has appeared some time subsequently to vol. I. The interruption of a complex work is necessarily attended with inequalities of execution: but, in the present instance, a want of strict uniformity of manner is abundantly compensated by the acquisition of new facts and important information. The appearance of *Haüy*'s excellent treatise, and the obliging communications of *Dubuisson*, not to mention the advantage of procuring the most accurate details from Germany, have enabled M. BROCHANT to render his second volume more complete than it otherwise could have been.

Pursuant to his plan, he ranks the SALTS, as they are found to exist in nature, in the second class of simple minerals. The genera which compose this class are the *sulphates*, *nitrates*, *muriates*, and *carbonates*.

Tinkal, or *borax*, is added in the form of an Appendix, as a substance of which the history is still doubtful. The latest authorities, however, sufficiently prove that it exists in a natural state.

The third class, as was promised in the first volume, includes the COMBUSTIBLES, under the three general designations of *Sulphur*, *Bitumen*, and *Graphite*. The latter comprizes *plumbago* and *native mineral carbon*. The definitions of the crystals of sulphur are set down with a degree of accuracy and precison, which we do not recollect to have noticed in any work conducted on the Wernerian plan.

The fourth class contains the METALS, which are discussed in the following order, *Platina*, *Gold*, *Mercury*, *Silver*, *Copper*, *Iron*, *Lead*, *Tin*, *Bismuth*, *Zinc*, *Antimony*, *Cobalt*, *Nickel*, *Manganese*, *Molybdæna*, *Arsenic*, *Scheelin*, (*Tungstein*,) *Uranium*, *Menakanite*, and *Sylvanium*, more commonly known by the name of *Tellurium*.

As *Werner* has been accused of needlessly multiplying the specific distinctions in this department, the present writer judiciously remarks that practical miners recognize still more numerous varieties; and that a long residence in the heart of a mining country would naturally suggest the useful, though apparently minute, subdivisions which pervade this voluminous class. On the other hand, he has omitted many of the physical and chemical properties of the respective metals, because he conceives that a mineralogical treatise more properly

relates to metalliferous substances, than to the metals which are extracted from them by the processes of art.

It may also be proper to observe that, in the above arrangement, no mention is made of the *sulphates of potash* and *ammonia*, and the *nitrates and muriates of lime*; which, according to the distributions of several distinguished writers, appertain to the class of SALTS. Agreeably to the Wernerian method, however, they are excluded because they are not found native in a solid state, and because, in consequence of solution in water, they ought to be considered under the descriptions of the waters which they modify.

In the course of his explanations, M. BROCHANT frequently favours us with interesting and discriminating remarks: but these we cannot notice minutely, without exceeding our accustomed limits. One extract may suffice to confirm our favourable opinion, and at the same time convey some new information to the English student of mineralogy:

'*Blende* is one of the most ordinary mineral substances which occurs in metallic veins, though never in such abundance as to reward the trouble of working. Hence the zinc, which is usually employed in commerce, is mostly obtained from calamine: but it is also extracted by sublimation, in the process of reducing galena which is mixed with blende.

'M. *Hecht*, jun. has described in the *Journal des Mines* (No. 49. p. 13.) a variety of sulphurated zinc, or blende, which differs in every respect from the preceding secondary species; and which, in my opinion, deserves to be classed as a separate species, under the appellation of *compact blende*. I shall here shortly characterize it from *Hecht*'s Memoir, and from the specimens which he sent to Paris.

'*External Characters.*

'Its colour is an *iron black*, softening into *grey*. It contains some *yellowish parts*.—It is found in *stalactiform masses*, whose upper surface is *tuberculous*, and the lower *cellular*. The natural surfaces are *dull*.—The inside has *hardly any brilliancy*, and even approaches to *roughness*, though with partial tendencies to a *slight degree of smoothness*.—It is composed of *detached, testaceous*, and *concentric pieces*.—Its fracture, in the direction of the laminæ, is *conchoidal*; its cross fracture *fibrous*, the fibres *very slender*, and *disposed in diverging groupes*.—The fragments are *indeterminate*, with *sharp edges*.—It is *opake*.—Its scrapings are of a *reddish brown*. It is *half hard—eager—brittle—moderately heavy*. Specif. grav. 3,6344.

Chemical Characters.

'Compact blende, on a bit of charcoal, under the blow-pipe, decrepitates, becomes yellow, burns with a blue flame and white vapour, and diffuses a sulphureous odour of acid gas.—According to the analysis of M. *Hecht*, it yields 62 parts zinc, 21 sulphur, 5 lead, 3 iron, 2 alum, 1 arsenic, and 4 water. Loss 2.—When scratched in the

the dark, it does not, like yellow blende, phosphoresce; though, like it, it gives out the hepatic odour.

'At first sight, it strongly resembles some of the hæmatites; and, were it not for the colour, might even be mistaken for malachite. *M. H.* justly observes that it bears a striking affinity to a mineral found at Raibel, in Carinthia, and which is only known by a note of M. *Widenmann* (Wid. p. 906.) on the species calamine, to which he refers it.—This mineral is of a *liver brown*, shading into *reddish brown* and *smoaky gray*.—It is *reniform*, composed of *separate* and *concentric pieces*.—Its fracture is *fibrous*.—It is *dull*, or *faintly shining*—*opake*, &c.—When heated with nitric acid, it emits an hepatic odour.

'Compact blende has been found in the county of Geroldseck, in the Brisgaw, in a vein chiefly composed of galena and ponderous spar. That part of the vein in which it occurs is composed of argil, within which it forms a layer one or two inches thick.'

The *Treatise on Rocks*, which is subjoined to the account of simple mineral substances, is more condensed than the nature of the subject seemed to require. As a sketch, however, it is not unworthy of its author; and the reader will, no doubt, be pleased to learn that it was submitted to the revision of *Werner*, and of his celebrated pupil, *Dubuisson*. We have been particularly gratified by the distinct and comprehensive view which it exhibits of volcanic substances, according to a modified statement of the luminous method proposed by *Dolomieu*.

A copious index, and a separate table of the general and particular characters which belong to the several kinds of mineral substances, form very convenient additions to this truely useful and respectable production: in the course of which, indeed, we have remarked some omissions, not altogether insignificant, and particularly in the first volume: but they can scarcely be considered as censurable deficiencies, being rather the inevitable effects of the rapid progress of science, with which no systematic publication can keep pace.

ART. III. *L'Alphabet raisonné*, &c. *i. e.* The Alphabet illustrated, or an Explication of the Mechanism of our Alphabetic Characters; with Plates containing explanatory Figures. By the Abbé MOUSSAUD, Emeritus Professor of the College of Rochelle, and Member of the Academy of Belles-Lettres of the same city. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1803. London, De Boffe. 14s. sewed.

LET not learned men be vain of their attainments; for if the author of this work may be credited, they are not yet acquainted with their A, B, C, but stand in great need of being initiated in the very principles of their alphabet. M. MOUSSAUD puts us back to our horn-book, and, with much

good nature and perseverance, endeavours to teach us the meaning of our letters: perhaps, however, he will complain that we are refractory scholars, and that we do not bow to him with that entire submission which is due from such ignorant pupils to so great a master. We are ready to confess, indeed, that this alphabetical lecture comes to us rather late in life; and that we cannot be so much amused now as we were in our childhood, by being told that "A was an archer, and shot at a frog;"—and how much more does the Professor of Rochelle college teach us? According to the old proverb, here is "Great cry and little wool;" much display, but little real discovery. Yet the Abbé congratulates himself on his good fortune, and records the following anecdote, in order that we and all his readers may rejoice with him:

'Among the alphabetic characters, (says he,) there is one which, though not, in truth, very frequently employed in our manuscripts, pleases me extremely by the elegance and agreeableness of its form. This character is the &; on which I have often employed my pen, in attempting to give to it all the perfection of which it is susceptible. At a propitious moment I made one so extremely well shaped, that its figure for some time fixed my attention. I considered it with a sort of complacency, when, all at once, the mysterious meaning of this figure revealing itself to me, I was presented with a view the most exact and, at the same time, the most happy, of the idea which it expresses. My surprize resembled that of a person who should on a sudden observe a thing to breathe which he considered as destitute of all principle of life. My first act was to cast my eyes over the other letters, and to examine whether these did not contain, in like manner, a hidden art. The easy explication of some of them, and particularly of the letter B, fully confirmed me in this opinion. The obvious consquence followed, and I was obliged to conclude that the alphabetic characters were not the effect of chance, as is commonly supposed, but the result of reflection, of which they artfully combine the traits. By this discovery, which appeared to me to be new, I was led to conceive the design of explaining the whole alphabet conformably to this principle; which, by the execution of my undertaking, I have fully confirmed. Such is the origin of the work which I now give to the public.'

Surely *And-passy-and* (as the children call it, but we confess that *we* do not know how to *spell* it) never before produced such feats on any good gentleman's eyes and imagination. O fortunate M. Moussaud! thou hast taken the alphabet by the tail, and so shaken it that every joint has opened, and discovered to thee the secrets of its mechanism! As a Frenchman is never at a loss to fill up his time, this alphabetic torture has been the ex-professor's amusement in his expatriated state; vowels and consonants have been forced

forced to reveal their mysteries; and A, B, C, and their brethren, though long allowed to walk as it should seem in masquerade, are now stripped of every disguise, and exhibited stark-naked to the world. We do not say that this is either rudely or hastily performed: for the process advances quietly and regularly; and this *man of letters* commences with modestly asking a plain question:—'Those alphabetic characters which the Romans have transmitted to us, and which are now in common use throughout Europe; those figures and signs which speak to the eye, as the voice speaks to the ear; are they the simple production of chance or caprice, the mere result of convention or agreement among those who first invented and those who adopted them; or are they the work of genius and reflection, the fruit of observation and of labour?'—In short, as he otherwise states the problem; 'Are the forms of our characters arbitrary signs or images, or are they copied after some models, and drawn according to certain principles?'

Our readers are now apprized of the part which M. Moussaud is prepared to take in this inquiry, and will perhaps be desirous of obtaining a few specimens at least of his method of proceeding. We do not imagine that any one of them will expect to be converted: because, as the written signs of sounds are arbitrary, and have differed among different people; as the notes used in music, the figures used in arithmetic, and the characters of the short-hand writer, can of themselves convey no assignable ideas, but must be explained in order to be understood; it borders on the ludicrous to look for a mystery in this or that configuration of a letter, or to argue that there is a reason to be assigned for every curve or for every strait line, whether vertical or horizontal, to the right hand or to the left, which enters into the composition of every letter of our alphabet. Laughable, however, as such a notion may generally seem, it is seriously entertained by this writer; who contends that, so far from their being the effect of chance or of arbitrary will, there is not a stroke which does not reveal the wisdom that presided over their formation.

As the & is the peculiar object of M. Moussaud's admiration, we shall exhibit his explanation of its form.

'This character, shaped as we here see it, possesses throughout such an elegance and lightness as confer on it a grace of which very few of the other letters partake. It is to be lamented that it has been so rarely employed in our manuscripts, to which it would have been a great ornament. Though, in truth, it neither represents any organ nor any real sound, it is not the less expressive, nor the less energetic in its way. The destination of the &, the only character of its kind in the alphabet, is to represent to the view the operation of the mind, and

which all men utter on first opening their mouths; it is the most natural, because it is that which most frequently escapes them in the different exclamations of fear, surprise, sorrow, &c.; for which we may indeed easily account, since nothing more is necessary to its formation than merely to open the mouth. Hence the opening of the mouth is its true sign, and the image most proper to express it to the eye. It is thus that we draw the character A, which is nothing more than a sketch, or outline of an open mouth, as will be better seen by representing it thus ⊳.

'This figure (somewhat incorrectly drawn, it must be confessed) acquires a surprising energy, as by degrees it obtains perfection. This perfection is observable in the flowing lines of the written A; the form of which is very antient. It so perfectly represents a mouth, that it might make a part of a portrait in profile, without submitting it to any change, but simply by disposing it thus ⊳. Under this aspect, every one must see, at the first glance, the two lips; while the kind of angle placed between them represents the tongue, which is more or less seen when the mouth is opened.'

So pretty a conceit may be supposed to have pleased the author; and, in order that the reader may become a convert to this explanation, the human face divine is delineated with the א mouth. We advise the Abbé to make an aleph א mouth, or to prove that the antient orientalists opened their mouths differently from the moderns.

As A is said to represent the aperture formed by the lips when the mouth is open, so B is said to be the expression of the lips closed, or the outline of the lips when the mouth is shut. Here the Hebrew beth ב presents a *wide* remonstrance against this idea.

The sound of the vowel E indicates the sign of existence, is the breath of life, is the sound of respiration, and is properly represented by the image of the organ by which we respire, or of the two nostrils of the nose.

The vowel U, being a gutteral, is said to take its form from the throat.—On the supernumerary vowel Y, we find a long dissertation, to little purpose; unless it be of importance to discover a kind of relationship between the first and the last of the six vowels, A and Y.

M is considered as the sister of B and P, and as deriving its figure from the shape of the same organs; representing the mouth opening, shutting, and re-opening.

The dental D derives its figure from the arc formed by the teeth, closed by a perpendicular line *.

* In the second volume, D as well as T is made a *striking* letter; and as the latter represents a *hammer*, so the former is said to be the figure of the *fist*.

T is said to be a *striking* letter *(une lettre frappante)*, because in its enunciation the tongue strikes against the teeth; and therefore it was proper that its sound should be represented by the figure of a hammer, of which indeed it is a sketch.

C and K, having nearly the same power, assume with a little contrivance the same form. The semicircle ☾ represents the curvature of the tongue; and the strait line on the top of the arc denotes the resting of the tongue against the palate; thus ☾, the elements of K, IC, are developed.

Q being stated to be an equivalent of C and K, and to represent the same articulation, its shape is likewise derived from the tongue. The round or circular part is copied from the swelling of the tongue, while the tail of this letter is a faithful image of the tip.

Such are the great discoveries made by this writer! The second volume abounds with reflections relative to the subject which M. Moussaud has so laboriously discussed: but these are too various and too much extended to admit of our examination of them. A section is devoted to Ventriloquists, who are represented as speaking without employing the usual organs of speech; who form the sound of the voice within themselves, and cause it to issue as it were from their stomach and intestines. The writer offers no explanation of this phænomenon, but refers it as a proper subject of inquiry to the anatomical philosopher; and he presents us, instead of science, with a Latin epigram, on a woman who talked without having a tongue:

" *Non mirum elinguis mulier si verba loquatur;*
Mirum cum linguâ si qua tacere queat."

As this examination abounds with traits of a poetical imagination, it is not improperly concluded with the following apostrophe to the inventor of letters:

' Illustrious *Thoth!* Immortal *Hermes!* this is thy work; such are the effects of thy brilliant invention. The literary world is indebted to thee for its very existence. Thou art its parent and its founder, and art therefore entitled to become the object of its incessant eulogy. May all writers be anxious to celebrate thy name and to chaunt thy praise! In proportion to their glory are the obligations which they owe to thee; for thou, in placing the pen in their hands, didst open to them the road to immortality.'

Let it be acknowleged, in conclusion, that, if M. Moussaud be not a convincing reasoner, he has contrived not to be a dull writer, even on a dull subject.

ART. IV. *Oeuvres Mêlées, i. e.* The Miscellaneous Works of Count ALEXANDER DE TILLY. 8vo. Berlin. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 6s. sewed.

AN elegant levity, sometimes bordering on frivolity, characterizes a considerable portion of these miscellanies. Some of our readers may recollect that several of the fugitive pieces appeared in 1783, and the two political letters at a subsequent period. Of the republished articles, it is our duty to observe that most have been carefully revised, and some rather artfully accommodated to the circumstances of the present times. The additions, which are comparatively numerous, will not detract from the writer's literary reputation. The general spirit of the volume induces us to regard the Count as an admirer of the old French school, addicted to gallantry and courtly poesy, retaining in mature age the sprightliness and vivacity of youth, and solicitous to soothe the painful recollections of general and individual suffering by the cultivation of letters and commerce with the muses.

If we were called to pronounce a more specific and discriminating verdict, we should be able to praise the Count's ease and gracefulness of versification rather than his fertility of fancy or brilliancy of imagery. His polished manner occasionally recalls the better days of French literature: but his disregard of strict decorum too often extorts our censure; and we must not dissemble the undisputed truth, that loose morality is more attractive and more dangerous when exhibited in the language of a gay and accomplished scholar, than when retailed in rude or vulgar phraseology. The reprehensible licence, to which we allude, unfortunately infects some very pretty verses addressed to the Marquis *de Par-y*, and the concluding part of the pleasing stanzas to the Prince of B***.

The same objection does not apply to the critical epistle addressed to *Champfort*, and originally composed in 1785. When he re-cast it, the author could not refrain from descanting on the political fates of his native country, which are wholly unconnected with the subject of the poem. The indulgent reader, however, will pardon this breach of unity of design, in consideration of the beautiful picture of domestic retreat, enhanced by the cultivation of the arts and sciences. We refrain from inserting the whole passage only on account of its length, and because we should scarcely do justice to it in a hurried translation.

The *Soldier's Farewell* breathes that amiable simplicity and pathos which distinguish the best of those French airs that are designed *Romances*.

Although

Although we can never wholly exempt the happiest effusions of the Gallic muse from a certain tameness of spirit, we are sensible that Count DE TILLY is not an unsuccessful imitator of his most distinguished predecessors. In some cases, we have even remarked a coincidence of expression which an ill-natured critic might term plagiarism. Thus; *Recevez mes dernieres larmes*, of *Voltaire*, may have suggested *Recevra mes derniers soupirs*; and the following lines,

> '*Ce n'est plus le jeu qui m'occupe,*
> *J'aime mieux exercer mon esprit, ma raison,*
> *Après avoir trop long-temps été dupe,*
> *Je n'ai pu me resoudre à me faire fripon,*'

recall those of Madame *des Houliers*,

> "*Le désir de gagner, qui nuit et jour occupe,*
> *Est un dangereux aiguillon:*
> *Souvent quoique l'esprit, quoique le coeur soit bon,*
> *On commence par être dupe,*
> *On finit par être fripon.*"

From the prose compositions, we should gladly select for the entertainment of our readers the true and horrible story intitled *d'Ormont*, which is told with admirable effect:—but it occupies eighteen busy and eventful pages, which set abridgment at defiance. We shall, therefore, confine ourselves to a few detached extracts from other parts of the collection.

The following, among other particulars, are related of *M. de Villette*:

'During what was called the *King's trial, Robespierre* and his accomplices had posted their myrmidons about the door of their gloomy mansion. There all the deputies were enjoined to vote for the death of *the tyrant*, or to forfeit their lives. Who can say how many timid suffrages such a base expedient cast into the scale of this assassination?

'At the tribune, M. *de Villette* had the courage to denounce the menace, and even to maintain that the king could not be brought to trial.—He voted for *deportation*. When we reflect on the circumstances and on the comparative weakness of the man, this conduct was magnanimous—this effort was immense. Indeed, it may be said to have put a period to his existence. A few hours after he had returned home, he was seized with a fever; and his death was better than his life.'

The *Parallel of Abdas and Moursa* is an ingenious *jeu d'esprit*, and a happy imitation of those trim historians who delight to weigh a pair of characters in the scale of contrast and antithesis: but the Count's remarks on London, which are lively, and for the most part accurate, *come nearer to our business and bosoms*. Westminster-abbey is thus introduced:

'The

'The longer I live, the more I learn to distrust report. Travellers usually embellish the objects of their contemplation, as the lover dwells with rapture on the perfections of his absent mistress. Westminster-Abbey, however, is well worthy of the attention of strangers: for it contains the tombs of the kings and queens of England, and of many distinguished persons of both sexes, who, fortunately for themselves, were neither kings nor queens. My attention was directed to two sorry chairs, half of wood and half of stone, on which, I was told, is performed the ceremony of coronation. To receive the crown under the same roof which is destined to cover his remains, is to the monarch an impressive lesson of the vicissitude of human affairs.

'The wax figure of Queen Elizabeth is said to be an excellent likeness. If so, she was a tall queen—nay, a tall man, though certainly not a handsome woman. Hence the Earl of Essex, who so long retained her good graces, was rather ambitious than amorous. Although few objects are less calculated to afford amusement than a tomb, I could not command my gravity when I beheld that of an Earl of Exeter. This nobleman had been twice married; and, during the mourning of his first widowhood, he had erected a triple tomb for his departed lady, for himself when his turn should come, and for her whom he selected for his second consort. He had reserved the middle station for himself; and the deceased countess could not demur to this arrangement. As he happened, however, to decamp before the second, who, probably, was no great admirer of his living manners, she begged leave to decline reposing by his side, and thus frustrated his intentions. Should his lordship one day awake, he must be contented to bestow all his affections on his first partner, on his right hand.'

'At Westminster is the tomb of the celebrated *Newton*. In vain I inquired for that of my friend, *Richardson*; and I lament the want of such a monument the more, because the English are not duly sensible of his merits as a writer. In my own opinion, he is the greatest master of the pathetic that they have ever had, and, if we except his tedious passages, one of the finest geniuses in the world.—How few are worthy of reading Clarissa! An Englishman of much wit once said to me, *I could never read that book to an end.—Lovelace is such a poor and insipid character.* Hardly could he believe that I was in my sober senses, when I represented a real Lovelace, acting his part in the world, as one of the greatest characters that ever appeared. Lovelace, I grant, is a seducer; but Lovelace might be a general: Lovelace is a seducer, but Lovelace might be whatever he wished to be. Nay, I may safely assert that no single individual can ever resemble Lovelace.—As for Clarissa, with the exception of a little folly, she is an angel.

'What knowlege of the human heart! what portraits! I would rather idolize Richardson, who is so easily understood, and understood with so much delight, than, like some pedants in France, lavish my praise on the sublime and monstrous Shakspeare; an author whom, I must be permitted to say, they can seldom comprehend, since he is not always intelligible to the English themselves.'

In

In a subsequent period of his life, however, the Count formally professes that he is master of Shakspeare's language; and that he could never read one of his tragedies from the beginning to the end, nor one of his pages with persevering admiration, He also acquaints us, for the first time, that Hume's History is slighted in England, because the author was a native of Scotland, and ventured to criticize Shakspeare without prejudice.—On this side of the water, such assertions require no serious refutation: but they confirm our suspicion that the present writer has bestowed more attention on his style than on the truth of his positions. When he compliments Frederic II. of Prussia on his proficiency in the French language, he seems to have been ignorant that Voltaire and other literati *washed the Prince's dirty linen*, and that the royal hero and philosopher was a novice even in orthography.—Is the Count prepared to substantiate those charges of infamy with which he loads the memory of the ill-fated *Condorcet?* or seriously to maintain that the enormities of the French revolution proceeded from the influence of *philosophy*, and not from the want of it?—His affectionate and intrepid loyalty to one of the most unfortunate of sovereigns would claim no common praise, did he not celebrate the *just* and *moderate* government of a military despot, at whose name humanity will long shudder.

Art. V. *Second Voyage à la Louisiane;* &c. &c. *i. e.* A Second Voyage to Louisiana, being a Sequel to the Author's first Narrative: containing the Military History of General *Grondel*, who long commanded at Louisiana; and who has been honoured with the Rank of 110 Years of Service: an Account of the most Useful and most Extraordinary Productions of that fine Colony, and of its most fertile and profitable parts; new Reflections respecting the Colonies in general; and the Regimen proper to be observed by Persons on their first Arrival. By Baudry des Lozieres. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1803.

The first voyage to Louisiana, to which the title-page of these volumes refers, was published without the author's name, and was noticed in our 40th vol. N. S. p. 539. From a dedicatory epistle which now occurs, we farther learn that M. des Lozieres was formerly an inspecting Colonel of Dragoons, and is now historiographer of the marine and of the colonies. In his preface, he remarks; 'the encouragement given by the public to my first voyage to Louisiana (*que l'on vend chez Dentu*) determined me on presenting them, under the title of second Voyage to Louisiana, with the remainder of my observations respecting this fine and curious country.' In our former

former article, we censured the impropriety of assuming for a publication a title which did not correspond with its contents: it certainly is a species of literary fraud; and this writer must now be considered an old offender. Of this which he has called the 2d voyage, he says, 'the work is not merely such an one as its title announces. I have allowed myself, for the benefit of the colonies, to enlarge the circle;' &c. The expression *not merely*, in the general use of the phrase, implys the completion of some condition expressed: but no Voyage to Louisiana appears in either of the volumes, and very little matter respecting Louisiana itself. If we search for the motives which governed this choice of a title, we find it difficult to imagine any other than a desire to captivate the attention of the public, whether by colours true or false.

The chart which accompanied the first '*Voyage*' is disowned by the author, as being manufactured and published without his knowlege; and thus abandoned, it will probably remain unowned and unprotected. He also acquaints us that he wished to have given with the present volumes a chart of Louisiana, such as he had composed from materials of his own collecting: but that the length of time, and the necessary expences, have obliged him to postpone this undertaking to a future and more convenient period, when he proposes 'to combine the parts, which are all prepared, *in a grand style*, (*avec luxe même*) and to make a chart that shall merit the honour of being framed.'

From the life of the veteran General *Grondel*, which occupies nearly 200 pages of the first volume, we learn that this officer was born in 1714; and that in 1720 he was received as *Cadet gentilhomme* in a Swiss regiment, which was taken in the following year into the service of France. The title-page and the introduction agree in attributing to M. GRONDEL 110 years of service: an enigma which the author explains by citing some ordinance which allowed the service of officers in the colonies to be reckoned double. The General appears to have been an active and brave officer, whose military talents were exercised many years in the Province of Louisiana against the Indians, or against the English, while Louisiana was subject to France. The writer, however, repeatedly loses sight of his hero; and indeed his digressions are both frequent and sudden. In his diversified career, speaking of the state of the first French colonists at Louisiana, he introduces this character of his countrymen: 'The savages believed that, by harrassing the new comers, they should force them to re-imbark: but they had not the smallest idea of the constancy of Frenchmen determined to conquer. When they experienced the onset of these Frenchmen, they compared them to those rapid torrents which descend

descend foaming from the mountains to ravage the plains. At this terrible sight, they recoiled, and regarded the French as divinities whose pardon they ought to implore. Afterward, when they became acquainted with the beneficence of their conquerors, they were confirmed in the belief of their divinity, by contemplating their intelligence, their gentleness, their generosity, and all the virtues which distinguish them.'

In the course of this biography, we find a strange anecdote of M. *du Tissenet*, a French officer, and father-in-law to the General:

'He was taken by the savages; who, according to their execrable custom, determined to scalp him and those of his comrades who were made prisoners with him. Fortunately, the savages were extremely ignorant, and M. *du Tissenet* understood their language. It is necessary to observe that he wore a peruke: seing their determination, he suddenly took a knife, and cutting himself in the forehead so that his face was covered with blood, he, with seeming effort, pulled off the peruke, and, throwing it on the ground, in a fierce tone of voice told the savages to take it if they dared. The astonishment and admiration of the Indians, at such an apparent instance of fortitude, was so well managed by *Tissenet*, that he succeeded in obtaining his own release, and that of his companions.'

In 1772 M. *Grondel* was appointed commandant at *L'Orient*, which post he filled till he was displaced by the revolution: He is still living, and the author bestows on him the character (intended no doubt as encomium) of being 'at the age of 90, much more *supportable* than many young people who by licentiousness have made themselves old at thirty.'

The next section of this volume is intitled *Colonial Reflections*: of which the first subject is, In what manner can the Spaniards most properly dispose of West Florida? This question the author very naturally answers, in favour of France.—Next follows a dissertation on the character of the North American Indian, a topic on which the travellers and writers of the French nation have dilated with great pleasure, and which they have moulded into every shape of which it was susceptible. The reader, therefore, will have little cause to wonder, if he should here meet with repetitions of remarks which he may remember to have seen elsewhere. A short table, relating principally to the manner and expence of acquiring grants of land, with the prices of slaves and of cattle, and a few hints respecting cultivation, might have afforded some useful information to new settlers, if it had been the destiny of Louisiana to have remained under the dominion of France. The table is given in the form of questions and answers; and the particular subjects are mixed with little atten-

tion to method. The first question may enable our readers to form some opinion of the geographical talents of the author, and thence to infer, perhaps correctly, the value of his promised chart of Louisiana: viz. 'In what degree is Louisiana situated?' The answer, 'its longitude is 279 degrees 28 min. 9 sec.; its latitude is 29°.39′.' We often hear of a country being situated between two meridians, and between two parallels of latitude: but this writer, with unprecedented and almost inconceivable precision, has fixed the whole of a large province to a point.

While treating of Louisiana, the author says, 'a person whom I regard as capable of giving much intelligence respecting this rich country is M. *Courrejolles*, engineer at St. Domingo;' and having by this speedy and easy conveyance transported himself and his readers to St. Domingo, he proceeds to take into consideration the affairs of that colony. He mentions a report which was in circulation there, but without vouching for its truth, 'that the European Generals had a secret understanding with the black chiefs, and the following manœuvre is laid to their charge. Some outposts were filled with various kinds of warlike stores and provisions, of which the negroes were advertised by private signals. They immediately advanced in great force to attack the post: the white soldiers seized their arms and made preparations for defence: but suddenly their commanding officer ordered a retreat, and they evacuated the post in good order without being pursued or molested. The negroes took possession, and after having conveyed away every thing that they found, they brought into the place a quantity of coffee, sugar, and money. The next day, or a few days afterward, the whites advanced to retake the place, and the negroes, in their turn, retreated. It is said, though I do not believe it, that this mercantile evolution was often practised, and that many fortunes were made by it.'

On his return to Louisiana, the author gives a list of merchandise, of the produce or manufacture of the United States, which was conveyed down the Mississippi into Louisiana during the year 1801, with some account of the navigation and of the vessels employed at New Orleans.

The *Avant propos* to the 2d volume informs the public of a loss which the author promises to repair as much as he is able. 'In proportion as I can recall to memory the articles which composed my *Encyclopedie coloniale*, on which I had laboured eighteen years, and which would have formed 24 or 25 volumes in 4to. if the *brigands* had not robbed me of it in their insurrection, I shall communicate them to the public.' This appears to be one of those extraordinary efforts of human in-

dustry, which surmount obstacles seemingly invincible. We recollect that, in the former publication of this writer, he acknowleged himself almost a stranger to the sciences; and therefore we may receive this *trait* as a proof of 'constancy determined to conquer.'

The great variety of the contents of this volume must prevent our enumerating all the particulars: but the following are among the most remarkable.—A memoir containing a description of the *Port-Mouche*, an insect which is destructive to the indigo and manioc plantations: it feeds on the manioc leaves, in some respects resembles the silk worm, and produces a substance which M. DES L. calls *Coton Animal* and compares to the finest cotton. This memoir was read in the *Institut National*, *An.* 7.—A botanical manual of colonial productions, in alphabetical order.—A vocabulary (also alphabetical) of the Congo language.—Some nautical descriptions of the coast of Guinea.—Medical virtues of some plants, and medical advice to those who live in the colonies, or in warm countries.—The remainder of the volume is occupied by plans and opinions on a variety of subjects, anecdotes, poetry, and other miscellaneous matter. The principal of the poetical effusions is a song in praise of *Bonaparte*. In his political reflections, the author discusses that point which has so often agitated mankind in almost every state of society; *i. e.* which kind of government is the best? His conclusion is, 'that only in the true monocratical system can be found that happiness which men are capable of enjoying on earth.' In general, throughout the work, the political opinions expressed by M. DES L. appear to be dictated by a spirit of complaisance for the First Consul, *le plus étonnant des hommes, descendu pour ainsi dire du ciel!* The very motto inserted in the title page of the 1st vol. must, we imagine, have been intended as a *Consular* compliment:

"*Si canimus silvas, silvæ sint* CONSULE *dignæ.*" VIRG. BUC.

Our readers may suppose that, in this heterogeneous mass, they may occasionally meet with something useful: but the author's style of language is frequently fantastical, and sometimes confused. Most of his *reflections*, as they are termed, are evidently opinions or ideas adopted *without* reflection.

M. DES LOZIERES gravely remarks that it has with great reason been asserted, that of all madness the *scribendi cacoethes* is the most incurable; and as an exemplification, he informs the reader that, having visited Italy and amassed much information concerning that country, he hopes one day to publish the fruits of his labours. It is possible that, from this source, and from the author's recollections, the public may be furnished with more 'voyages to *Louisiana*.'

ART. VI. *Les Femmes, leur condition et leur Influence,* &c. *i. e.* Women, their condition and influence in Society, among different Nations, antient and modern. By JOSEPH ALEX. DE SEGUR, 3 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1803. De Boffe, London. Price 15s. sewed.

THESE volumes will probably be received as a very acceptable present by our people of fashion; since, in the course of them, subjects of the first importance to these parties, though they may be considered as incidentally introduced, are treated very much at large. In the disquisitions which occur in them, what is called the *ton* is described with skill, the modes are traced to their principles, polished manners are analysed, the practice of the *bel usage* is detailed, and elegance of behaviour and all the shades of good breeding are sketched by the hand of a proficient. While, however, many of its parts will induce the beaux and the belles to regard this performance as designed solely for them, the philosopher and the statesman may not deem it altogether unworthy of their attention. Though the author has borrowed freely from other writers in regard to facts, his work is, in every sense of the term, completely original. Some of his positions on the state of the sex among the Chinese, and the antient Egyptians, may be questioned: but this would only lead to a dry discussion, would be doing little more than setting conjecture against conjecture, and would be less agreeable to our readers than the account which we propose to give of the writer's statements and views, as detailed in the more interesting parts of the publication.

We observe a sort of innovation in this class of compositions, introduced by M. SEGUR, which, in the present instance, has certainly been an improvement, because it eminently assists us in forming a due conception of his notions and views. We allude to the tales with which he closes his accounts of each period of the history of the treatment of women, founded on the facts there related, and intended to illustrate them and render them more familiar. These tales, independently of answering this valuable end, possess the highest merit considered in themselves, with respect to structure, interest, and elegance.

On a view and comparison of the conduct and demeanour of the sexes in different situations and various relations of life, the author maintains that women are not inferior to men. He keeps this doctrine constantly in view, and makes all his facts and reasonings refer to it: but it appears, morally considered, that he regards them as *magis pares quam similes*; for he lays it down that to one sex belongs the power of force, to the other that of grace and beauty; and he argues that, on fairly weighing

ing their respective excellencies, we shall find the balance even. While it is indubitable that each is absolutely essential to the being and well-being of the other; that high and most important functions are assigned to each; and that each, by endeavouring to attain the perfections of its nature, may render itself a glorious and sublime object; the question, on which side lies the bare superiority? will remain extremely complicated, and must be regarded as more curious than important.

In giving an account of the state of women in Greece, M. SEGUR observes that at Athens the courtezans were the most accomplished of their sex; while the noble matrons, and young women, were bred up in ignorance, confined within their mansions, and employed solely in household cares. The Greeks, who were excellent judges of what contributed to enjoyment, who well understood the sex, and who best ordered what related to them, were aware that women were competent to every situation: but they perceived that, to call forth all the opposite qualities with which nature had endowed them would be turning none of them to good account. Naturally adorers of talents and elegance, but lovers of domestic order, jealous of their rights over the sex, and considering its virtues as the safeguard of the education of their children, they were of opinion that, in the composition of a wife, estimable qualities were preferable to brilliant talents; though they admitted, on the other hand, that the austerity of duty did not well comport with the arts of pleasing, and that the rigorous laws of modesty were ill calculated to gratify the desires of the voluptuary. The social arrangements in Greece were founded on these views. The Greeks did not, according to the practice in France, hope to find two distinct women in one individual: but their foresight divided the sex into two completely distinct classes: the one devoted to pleasure, the other set apart for duty; the one seeking esteem as its reward, the other courting incense and homage. The French, says the author, less reasonable than the Greeks, look to their women for gratifications which suppose contradictory faculties, and habits which are mutually destructive of each other; and hence follow so many ill regulated families, so many ill educated young people, and so much injustice in their judgments of women. Let any mother reflect on the lessons which she gives to her daughter, in order to render her what is called at Paris an amiable woman; and she will perceive that she endows her with different qualifications which are equally calculated to secure the esteem and to call forth the contempt of her husband. The Athenians, themselves too much inslaved, were apt to forget their wives; the French have trained them too much in order to please; while

the English have shewn a better judgment in their estimates, and have observed a just medium in this respect. Strict to their principles, says M. SEGUR, the interior of English families is more pure, and yields to them a permanent happiness, which cannot but be impaired if their manners should ever become as corrupt as ours.—A letter, which Aspasia, the famous courtezan, is here made to write to a young accomplished Grecian lady, admirably depicts the character and influence of that class of women in Athens.

The Roman women, the author observes, were unceasingly engaged in domestic concerns, and strangers to pleasure except as duty led to it. The education of their children, the spinning of the wool which was to clothe their husbands, and prayers to the gods in their absence for their return, formed their daily occupation, and the object of all their thoughts. Long did this purity of manners, which rendered the women so estimable, prevail at Rome; and the first departure from it was the commencement that universal degeneracy, which ended in the subversion of the empire.

In regard to the introduction of Christianity, the writer remarks;

'Under the influence of this dispensation, all persons made efforts to reform; the women cherished modesty; duties were regarded as pleasures; wise institutions were formed; vows were pronounced indissoluble; and marriage, which had been no more than a civil pact, became a sacred solemn bond, sanctified by the altar and protected by the laws. Peace seemed to descend on earth, in order to invite mortals to love and cherish it; and religion, uniting all souls, seemed to form an immense chain which connected with the throne of the Divinity.'

M. SEGUR thinks that it was the leading object of Mahomet, to extinguish all the passions that might counteract the influence which he wished to obtain over the minds of men. He put an end to drunkenness by prohibiting the use of wine: but how was he to triumph over love? He kept its powerful influence in subjection by consecrating the custom of shutting up the women; by setting no limit to the gratification of desire; and by leaving to beauty no empire but the precarious and fugitive control over the senses. The plan was fatal to female influence. Among barbarians, women have emancipated from their chains, have softened their rude husbands, and have reigned over them: but under the dominion of the Koran, their lot experiences no amelioration, and slavery appears to be their eternal doom.

It was a fact not to be overlooked by the advocate of the sex, that the females, even among savage nations, indicate a dis-

disposition to gentleness and sociability; and that the first steps towards civilization are made by them. We are told that chivalry was no where carried to so great a height, nor the female reign anywhere so absolute, as among the Moors at Grenada, before that city fell into the hands of Ferdinand and Isabella.

When chivalry was succeeded by the love of letters, the females did not shrink from this new career. They attempted religious poetry, engaged in controvery, and addressed Latin harangues to Popes and Kings, exhorting them to make war on the Turk, the common enemy of religion and of the fair: they cultivated the Greek language; and the sublime poems of Homer were pronounced by the lips of beauty and fashion. Not contented with the honors which they gained in this course, they were desirous of forming the *subject* of these compositions; their will was law; Europe was filled with works, in prose and verse, which celebrated the perfections of women; and the first instance of this kind of homage was given by Boccacio, in his treatise concerning Illustrious Women.—While men still continued to addict themselves to intrigue and to war, the women shone by intellectual displays. The courts of Parma, Naples, Florence, Mantua, and Milan, were schools of elegance, instruction, and taste. To please, to love, to write, to expect and to receive homage, were the employments of the females.—Early in the 16th century, arose the question respecting the pre-eminence of the sexes; and the author supposes that the women themselves instituted the controversy, in hopes of establishing their domination.

'If, (says he), they submit to our rule, it is in spite of themselves. Patient by nature, as well as by the education which they receive, they are enslaved, but not subjected; and they avail themselves of every occasion for seizing the pre-eminence, without the least apprehension that they shall fail in guiding the reins which they place in their own hands, or that they shall ill execute the undertakings by which they promise celebrity to themselves. Among the most distinguished advocates of their superiority, was the celebrated Cornelius Agrippa, who thus paid his court to Margaret of Austria, then governing the low countries. His work was extended to forty chapters, and he supported his system by physical, theological, historical, and moral proofs. Numerous writers maintained, and combated, the postions which he laid down.'

The author puts a case which, we doubt not, happens too often in his country; viz. that in which paternal and maternal tenderness is opposed to love; and he shews that the latter obtains a victory over this passion, while the former invariably yields to it: whence he infers that genuine sentiment is stron-

ger in woman than in man. In aptitude for friendship, he seems to give to man the palm, when he says; 'Let us follow the laws of nature: let women live for maternal tenderness, and for love; and let friendship be with them the second interest of their lives. since man alone, perhaps, can be impressed by both sentiments in an equal degree. I may displease, by this judgment, a sex which I revere, but I believe that I have stated the truth.'

With respect to letters, this writer is of opinion that the genius of women is more delicate than profound, and that it analyzes and defines with more elegance than justness. If the art of *Corneille*, *Racine*, and *Voltaire*, demands strength superior to that which belongs to woman, no author, (he asserts) antient or modern, has attained to that excellence in epistolary writing, of which Mad. *de Sevigné* was mistress; and he thinks that even *Florian*, in his Galatea, is less happy in his style than Mad. *Riccoboni*. Energetic ideas, he says, are denied to women; they think, but they rarely meditate; they dress up and they lay hold of relations more readily than we do; and all the slighter affinities they represent with a grace that is peculiar to themselves. 'In love they feel more strongly than we do, and they better speak its language. A woman would have written some pages in the new Heloise better than *Rousseau*, but no female could have supported the sublime and continued eloquence which distinguishes that work. A woman might die like Julia, but she would not be able to pen a letter which would so well describe her last moments.'

On the subject of beneficence and pity, M. SEGUR thinks there can be no question. Women feel more strongly and promptly the miseries which they behold, and therefore must pity them the more. The least complaint reaches their hearts, and even a slight wound their sight cannot endure. Their mission on earth seems to be to appease and to succour. Attracted towards the unfortunate, when we are barely moved, they have already relieved them before we have resolved to fly to their succour.

In the course of this work, we have a very interesting account of the interior of the court, and of the Parisian fashionable world, in the reign of Louis XIV. The sketch here given of that monarch is flattering, but we do not deny that it is on the whole just. Fate, says the writer, seemed to aim at bringing together in one reign more great men than had been seen since the beginning of the monarchy. Genius, talents, the fine arts, and all kinds of knowlege adorned this period. The monarch, well adapted to support the pomp of the

the throne, derived from and lent lustre to all that surrounded him, and the éclat of which dazzled all beholders; while astonished Europe asked, with a sort of secret envy, which she ought to admire most; Nature, who had produced at once so many luminaries, or the address of the reigning prince, who had contrived that they should shine with so much brilliancy? Louis, in the prime of his days, paid constant homage to beauty, and shewed on every occasion a tender respect for women: but he was truly a king; he governed himself; under him, the system by which a great people is rendered manageable with ease was established and respected: while the women quitted the theatre of politics, were contented to be the ornaments of this memorable period, and surrounded the throne of Louis, uniting charms to splendour, and grace to glory. The gallantries of this monarch are pleasantly detailed in a spirited and neat dialogue, which is supposed to have taken place between the disappointed *Lauzun* and the discarded *sur-intendant Fouquet*, during their confinement in the same prison at Pignerol. *Lauzun* is made thus to describe the style of them:

'There was grandeur even in this prince's manner of offering homage to beauty; it was by brilliant efforts that he sought to conquer it, and to triumph over its rigours. Carried away by love, he made a divinity of the object which he importuned, that he might not degrade himself in his own eyes; and like Jove, while amorous, there appeared symptoms of power in his most tender and submissive attention, and the lover never wholly concealed the sovereign. He was imitated by all in the court, and in the city. No king ever gave the tone as he did, and influenced like him the conduct and almost the thoughts of his people. Our gallantry had a tincture of elegance, and of respect for the sex, of which the monarch had set us the example. There was less of chivalry than under Francis I., less of tenderness, perhaps, than under Henry IV.: but, if I may use the expression, there was more importance in love, and more dignity in the part which the women acted, under Louis XIV.'

The women did not merely give éclat to Versailles, but, at Paris society was rendered brilliant by the talents and genius which the sex of all ranks and classes displayed. At the very same period that Mad. *de Sevigné* wrote her charming letters, Mad. *Dacier* rendered herself celebrated by her knowlege of antient languages, and by her translations; Mesd. *Lafayette* and *Scudery*, by their romances; Mad. *de Suze*, by her elegies; Mad. *Deshoulières*, by her poetry; Mad. *de Lambert* rendered morality lovely, and deified friendship in her writings; Mesd. *de Montpensier*, *de Longueville*, *de Caylus*, &c. wrote very interesting memoirs: in fine, *Ninon* lived, the charm of her age, exercising an influence by her beauty on the heart, equal to that

that which she maintained by her amiableness on the mind, and by her probity in the esteem of her friends, whom she attached to her last moment. At this brilliant epoch, when art and nature, conspiring together, exhibited so many grand objects; when general emulation seemed to force every one to exhaust, in a manner, all his faculties in order to attain perfection; this was a period which tried the merits of the sex. Had women been very inferior to men, they would have been eclipsed, and they would have formed no part of the picture. This, however, was not the case; confident in their strength, they entered the lists; and they had the merit of adding to the lustre of the age, without departing from their proper province. If greater men never appeared than in the time of Louis XIV. never also were seen a greater number of celebrated women.

The author takes every opportunity of panegyrizing Mad. *de Sevigné*; and what reader of sensibility and taste will not join in the praise? He properly extols the very eloquent letter which relates the death of the great *Turenne*; and he apologizes for the prejudice which led this amiable woman to prefer *Pradon* to *Racine*, and *Mascaron* to *Flechier*: a circumstance which gave great pain to those celebrated men. He can find no adequate cause for this injustice, except female vanity; and he does not see how it was possible that a person of her taste could, *bonâ fide*, have entertained the sentiments which she professed respecting the above mentioned great characters: he cannot conceive how a woman, who enchants us with turns which so nearly approach the sublime, could fail to relish *Racine*: but, says he, let us forget these weaknesses, and let us recognize the inimitable talent which formed out of a mere correspondence, one of the most interesting courses of reading that we possess; and by which this lady has rendered her affection for her daughter as permanent in the recollection of mankind, as it was lively and profound in her own heart.

'Had it belonged to women, (continues the author,) to create new objects in science or the arts, this was the period in which their emulation would have incited them to have attempted it: but they are born only to perfect, and to discover in things already known particulars and shades which escape us. Hence the charm of their writings of a certain kind, to which their ambition ought to confine itself: hence their superiority to us in epistolary writing; and in a particular class of novels, such as those of the inimitable *Riccoboni*. It may seem extraordinary, but it is certain that their taste is not always to be followed; which may induce the opinion that this attainment relates more to a knowlege of principles, to a profound meditation which teaches us the art of applying them, than to any natural endowment or happy instinct;—the sole guides of women, but guides too uncertain not sometimes to lead astray. How much does

their

their innate talent for catching shades, relations, and the secret connections of thoughts, give them the advantage over us? We rule only by force, they govern by the effect of their art and their perseverance. We observe them without ceasing, and still do not know them: while they know us, without seeming to regard us. Perhaps this difference is to be traced to the relation of master and slave. Rarely does he who holds the chain know the captive while the latter constantly studies his guardian, and comprehends him. Thus we find the women discovering our interior at first sight, and hence arises their credit in particular, and their influence in general.'

We might produce many other passages, which shew the author's acute discernment, his sound judgment, and his intimate acquaintance with the state of society in France at a later period: but we have to apologize to our readers for having already exceeded our limits. We regret that they will not permit us to accompany him through the survey which he takes of the present state, character, and distinctive qualities of women in the several countries of modern Europe. He is an ardent admirer of the ladies of unfortunate Poland; and we suspect that he must have spent his best days in the society of the Polish belles: who, we are told, chaunt with delightful voices the stanzas of Tasso, and recite the verses of Delille; who have impressed in their recollections the enchanting scenery of Italy, and the terrific views of Swisserland; and who, seated in bowers designed by themselves, and surrounded by a thousand displays of art, discourse with rapture on the charms of nature. We cannot proceed even with any of the *parts* of this enchanting picture, but must refer our readers to the volume itself. It occurs in an admirable letter, stated to have been written by a very intelligent traveller, and whom we suspect to be no other than M. Segur. It has this conclusion, which it were unpardonable in us to pass over: 'I believe, if it were permitted me to chuse, I should take an Englishwoman for my wife, a Frenchwoman for my friend, and a Polonese for my mistress.'

Near the termination of the work, we are presented with a most interesting tale, founded on the loves of Elerz and Zunilda, and the adventures of Florvel; the object of which is to expose the folly and misery of libertinism, by contrasting it with virtuous love. A young Parisian supports the part of the libertine; and a pair in Dalecarlia, in the north of Sweden, display the charms, the pure enjoyments, and the unbroken felicity, which, in sequestered scenes, ever attend on love, innocence, and competence. The address which is discovered in this little production, the delicate touches which occur in it, its structure, and its moral, prove the powers of the author to be of the first rate.

An

An English translation of this performance has lately appeared. We have not yet seen it, but shall speak of it hereafter.

ART. VII. *Histoire Medicale de l'Armée de l'Orient*, &c.; *i. e.* The Medical History of the [French] Army of the East. By R. DESGENETTES, Chief Physician. 8vo. pp. 400. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

THIS work is divided into two parts: the first of which contains the Reports addressed, from time to time, to the Council of Health for the Armies, by Dr. DESGENETTES; and the second consists of Papers drawn up by different medical men employed in Egypt, while the French held that country, and directed to the author of the work. The first part consists chiefly of common (though very judicious) precautionary orders; many of which indicate that a want of harmony is to be found in bodies of medical men, abroad as well as at home. One of the most important rules was that of burning the clothes of soldiers who died of the plague; and it was also, as may well be imagined, very difficult to carry it into effect.

Contrary to the reports which were circulated while the French army was in Egypt, we find that the plague was introduced into the military hospitals; that many of the medical officers were shut up in rigorous quarantine with their patients; and that they frequently fell victims to the disease. Dr. DESGENETTES acknowleges that there could be no doubt of the existence of contagion in these cases; though some medical sceptics among ourselves have lately called it in question; and accordingly the patients seized with plague were separated, as soon as it was possible, from the rest of the sick.

During the encampment before Jaffa, however, though pestilential fevers were extremely prevalent, Dr. D. observes that he abstained from pronouncing the word *plague*; and those who have heard of the *sudden deaths* imputed, on good grounds, to the Commander in Chief, will consider him as still more cautious on that subject:—at least, in this volume.

In the course of this correspondence, we learn that, during a total want of Cantharides for the purpose of blistering, Dr. D. substituted with utility the practice of dropping boiling water on the skin.

The author remarked that several of his patients had the plague twice; which is an important fact at this time of unreasonable scepticism. He inoculated himself in two places, from the pus of a pestilential bubo; in order, as he says, to raise

raise the spirits of the army; and the only sensible effect, which he felt from this daring experiment, was from the inflammation of each puncture. He escaped the influence of contagion entirely, though his visits to the infected were frequent and protracted. He mentions, also, that a country-operator, who was in much request among the soldiers, was accustomed, after having opened bubos, or cut carbuncles, to place his bistouries, slightly wiped, between his turban and his forehead, without injury.

On the return of the French army through the desart, they met with leeches in some brackish waters, which fixed themselves to the palate or fauces, and occasioned hæmorrhages. They were sometimes detached by gargling with vinegar; but occasionally it was necessary to remove them with the forceps. The total loss of the French army, up to the end of 1800, is thus stated:

Killed in battle -	3614
Dead of their wounds -	854
Accidentally killed -	290
Died of common diseases	2468
Died of the plague -	1689
Total	8915

In the interval between the assassination of General *Kleber* and the landing of our troops, we meet with many excellent regulations drawn up by Dr. DESGENETTES, for improving the salubrity of Alexandria.—He also describes the symptoms of an ephemeral fever at Cairo, which begins with a cessation of moisture on the skin; and we are told that the usual salutation of the country, instead of being "How do you do?" is, "How do you sweat?": so necessary to health is the discharge by the skin.

The author continued at Cairo, during our invasion of Egypt, in order to superintend the hospitals while the ravages of the plague continued; and it appears that 2937 of the inhabitants were carried off by that disease in the month of *Germinal*, 1801.—On the whole, however, Dr. D. observes that the French army was more healthy in Egypt, than any of their other armies were in Europe. Respecting the plague, he says that they wanted medicines for the purpose of observations; and nothing satisfactory was established concerning the efficacy of frictions with oil.—The south winds, and warm moist air, favour the production of the plague: northerly winds, and the extremes of heat and cold, suppress it. The plague, he observes, is undoubtedly contagious: but the peculiar circumstances

stances under which contagion is propagated are not exactly known. Dead bodies do not communicate it; and it has been stopped by the intervention of the Nile; or even by a fosse, dug before a camp. All these facts certainly shew that the disease is propagated by individual contagion.—The Doctor also observes that the plague varies greatly in intensity, and that spontaneous cures sometimes take place in the most advanced stages. In 1801, when there were sometimes 700 patients ill with the plague in the castle of Cairo, upwards of a third and sometimes nearly half of them were cured. The young negroes and the Syrians, who had enlisted, suffered most.

The official Reports in Part II. have principally appeared in the *Memoirs concerning Egypt*, and have already been mentioned in our xxxviiith Vol. N. S. pp. 524—532.

A very clear account of the Ophthalmia is given by Dr. *Bruant*: who attributes its origin to the great heat and brightness of the atmosphere, and to the small sand perpetually floating in the air. Frequent washing of the eyes with cold water is said to be one of the best means of prevention, and of cure in the incipient state of the disease. We observe nothing particular in the method of cure, excepting that topical bleeding was little practised.

A particular detail of the friction with oil, in cases of plague, is related by Dr. DESGENETTES: but we have already mentioned his opinion of this practice.

An entertaining paper occurs on the Manners of the Egyptians, by Dr. CARESOLE: but we observe nothing new and important in it.

The volume is concluded by several topographical sketches of different towns, the results of which nearly correspond with each other. They prove that many of the diseases in Egypt, especially those of children, are owing to filth, and improper modes of living.—A set of meteorological tables, relating to Cairo, is added to these dissertations.

This collection will afford much matter for reflection to the medical reader, though it contains few striking facts. The benefits of a fine climate are denied in a great measure to the unfortunate Egyptians, by their own ignorance and the brutal disposition of their masters. How hard that the jealous policy of European states should condemn such a country to perpetual oppression and misery!

ART.

ART. VIII. *Considérations Medicales*, &c. *i. e.* Medical Considerations on the Advantages of Wetnursing, for the greater number of the Infants of large Towns. Presented to and defended at the School of Medicine of Paris in the Month of Germinal of the 11th Year of the French Republic. By G. A. CHEVALIER-DEMOLLE, M.D. 8vo. pp. 46. Paris. 1803. De Boffe, London; 2s.

THERE seems to be little occasion, in the present day, for the employment of many arguments against the general exercise of one of the most natural and important duties of a mother, that of suckling her own child; since it unfortunately happens that the modern manners of society, particularly of its more elevated ranks, are very unfavorable to the domestic offices of the parent; and that too many mothers feel a ready and acceptable excuse for the neglect of their duty to their offspring, in the plea of delicacy or ill health. Cases without doubt sometimes occur, in which it would be improper for a child to be suckled by its mother: but such instances are very rare, and by no means appear to us to justify the extent to which the present author goes in his conclusions on this subject.

He is of opinion that, from the dissipation and irregularity which so much prevail in large towns, and into which females are of course misled, that they have too great a feebleness of constitution to be able to secrete milk of a sufficiently nutritive and healthy kind, for the support of the infant; and that, on this account, it is much better for the parent at once to renounce all ideas of suckling, than to endanger the health of the child by undertaking this duty, which she is imperfectly qualified to perform. To this mode he thinks there can be no reasonable objection, either on account of the parent or the infant; since the former can readily procure the assistance of an adult to relieve her from the accumulation of milk, which might create some inconveniences, while the latter might as effectually have the meconium carried off by a mild laxative, as by the purgative influence of the first secretion from the breast. He lays little stress on the attachment which is reciprocally formed between the parent and child by suckling; and he is even of opinion that, where this takes place to any considerable degree, it produces, by giving rise to excessive indulgence, disadvantage rather than benefit. It appears to this writer, that the tie thus created is in general only a transitory one, that it is purely physical, and that it can therefore have no influence on the moral affections. He also considers the attachment of parents to their offspring as having its origin in both from the

same

same source, and existing in the same degree; and that it is on this account perfectly unaffected, in the mother, by the circumstance of the child deriving its nourishment from her.

The author admits that, when the mother is sufficiently vigorous, and her previous habits have been favourable to the necessary attention to her offspring, it is advantageous to suckle her infant: but, in considering the manners of large towns, and the unfitness produced by them for the maternal office, he affords the mother too easy an acquittance from her duty. When the parent is unable to give proper nutrition to her infant, and her own health is likely to be impaired by the drain which suckling keeps up, she is necessarily obliged to employ foreign aid: but it seldom happens that the body, which is able to prepare sufficient nourishment for the support of the fœtus, is not furnished by nature with adequate vigour for completing the duty which remains to be performed after birth. This duty we cannot regard so slightly as the author views it. An important function, like that of Lactation, could not have been instituted for a trivial purpose; nor is it reasonably to be supposed that its constant interruption can be a matter of perfect indifference. When it is practised, it always seems to have a salutary influence on the general health and spirits, both which many delicate females enjoy in a higher degree during the period of their suckling, than at any other time. This is an effect of Lactation which is by no means to be overlooked; nor must we also omit to mention that it tends to prevent the too frequent recurrence of pregnancy, which has often a very debilitating effect on the female constitution, particularly when delicate. The dissipation and irregularities of modern society are certainly incompatible with the duties of a mother: but the task of suckling generally produces a relish for domestic enjoyments, equally favourable to the health and happiness of the parent, and to the vigour and growth, as well as the subsequent good behaviour and improvement of the child. Without entering into an analysis of the nature of parental feelings; or employing any time in proving, what the author does not seem to admit, that there is a considerable difference between the tender solicitude of the mother and the less ardent though steady regard of the father; we cannot forbear to express our conviction that, if the attention of the modern fashionable mother were more devoted at an early period to the cares of her nursery, to which suckling would introduce her, there would be less of that disregard of and disrelish for domestic duties; and less of that taste for frivolous and exhausting amusements, for which many of our fair countrywomen are too much distinguished. The rearing of

the child is the peculiar province of the mother: but, in order to perform with alacrity various duties of which the helpless period of infancy demands the exercise, she must be inspired with all that tender solicitude and anxious fondness which nature has wisely calculated suckling to produce.

ART. IX. *Mémoires sur la Respiration*, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs on Respiration. By LAZARUS SPALLANZANI, translated into French from the unpublished Manuscript. By *John Senebier*, Member of various Academies and learned Societies, &c. 8vo. pp. 373. Geneva. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, Price 6s.

THE indefatigable SPALLANZANI, whose death the philosophical world has recently lamented, has not yet ceased to interest and improve his fellow labourers. The results of many of the numerous and important objects of inquiry, which engaged his constant and unwearied attention, had not at the time of his decease been laid before the public; and it has devolved on an able and intimate friend to perform this grateful duty to his memory. From the nature of the Abbe's previous investigations, he was led to examine, with much attention, the phænomena of respiration, and the circumstances attending the exercise of this function in the various classes of animals. Modern chemistry presented an extensive field of improvement in this branch of physiology, and afforded the means of more accurately determining the changes produced by it on the animal body, as well as more correctly ascertaining the purposes which it is intended to serve. Whether the whole of the Abbé's deductions will stand the test of future inquiries, time only can determine: but the world can never consider itself as too much indebted to this illustrious philosopher, for the ardour and ingenuity of his numerous investigations, which have thrown so much light on various obscure parts of physiology.

The work, which we are now to notice, is preceded by an historical account of the author's life and writings; of which we should make a short abstract, if we had not already communicated a similar outline in our account of the Abbé's posthumous publication on the Blood, in our 38th vol. N. S. p. 353. We shall, however, add a few particulars of his literary labours and general character.

In the year 1761, SPALLANZANI addressed three letters to *Algarotti* on his translation of Homer, which are inserted in the 14th vol. of the works of that author.

In 1762, after a journey in the Appennines, he gave a description of a "Mountainous excursion, with some observations on the origin of fountains."

The year 1765 produced an account of microscopic observations relating to the system of Needham and Buffon, in which he established 'the animality of microscopic animals by solid and ingenious arguments.' Afterward, he published an essay on the rebounding of stones from water; the intention of which was to shew that this effect is not produced by the elasticity of the water.

In 1768, he circulated a prospectus of a treatise on animal reproduction, in which he demonstrated the regeneration of various parts of animals, particularly of the heads of snails, the feet of toads, the feet and tail of salamanders, and the bones of their jaws. The project of a large work on this subject, however, was never executed. In the same year, he published a small essay on the action of the heart and blood vessels, which was reprinted in 1775, with three new dissertations, on the phænomena of circulation as observed in the whole system of vessels; on the phænomena of languid circulation; and on the motions of the blood, independently of the action of the heart and the pulsation of the arteries. About the same time also appeared a plan for experiments on the generation of mules in the class of insects.—On his arrival at the University of Pavia, he published in 2 vols. a translation of the contemplations of *Bonnet*, which he employed in his lectures as a text.—With *Bonnet*, he was long on terms of the closet intimacy, founded on mutual admiration and esteem.

The first two volumes of the Abbe's dissertations on animal and vegetable physics were given to the world in 1776, which formed a developement of a part of the microscopic observations before brought forwards by him. Four years afterward he compleated two new volumes, which contain his celebrated observations on digestion, generation, and artificial impregnation.

Spallanzani was fond of travelling, but always made his tour subservient to the cultivation of natural history. Of his last excursion, in the two Sicilies, he published an interesting account some time before his death. He had the care of the museum of natural history at Pavia, and he enriched it by the valuable collections which his travels afforded him an opportunity of making. His active mind was continually directed to the prosecution of some interesting inquiry; and the results of those investigations he communicated to the world either in distinct works, or in memoirs which have appeared in different scientific collections. He was rather tall, his deportment was noble and stately, and his physiognomy sombre and pensive. He had a large forehead, lively and black eyes, a brown complexion, and a robust constitution. He was universally beloved

loved for the amiable qualities of which he was possessed; and he was the delight of his relations, many of whom he inspired with a taste for his favourite pursuits.

The posthumous volume, of which a translation from the Italian MS. is now before us, consists of three memoirs, which form the commencement of a great work on respiration, intended to examine the nature and phænomena of this function, in the different classes of animals. The subsequent parts, we are informed by M. *Senebier*, have been received by him, and will be published as soon as possible.

In a copious introduction, and in a letter to the translator written a short time before his death, M. SPALLANZANI gives the general plan of his comprehensive experiments, and the principal results which attended them. In prosecuting his researches, he thought it most natural to begin by examining the respiration in the lower animals, and gradually to rise to that of such as possess a more complicated and perfect organization. We must therefore wait for a future volume, to recieve the detail of his experiments on man and the higher orders of animals, although in the present we are in some degree informed of their issue. The first memoir treats on the respiration of snails, whether with or without shells: the second on that of the aquatic testacea, as the viviparous snail, the *Helix vivipara* of Linné, and the duck and swan Muscle, the *Mytilus Anatinus*, and *Cygneus*: the 3d memoir comprizes reflexions and new experiments on the crustacea hitherto examined, and on some other animals of different orders.

It will be unnecessary to give a regular abstract of the substance of these memoirs, because the inferences drawn from the experiments detailed in each of them, as well as those which are said to be deduced in the subsequent parts of the work not yet published, are extremely similar. The general conclusions, to which they lead, are as follow: that oxygen is necessary for the support of every animal; that in all animals the skin and lungs perform the similar function of absorbing oxygen, and throwing out carbonic acid gas; that, in such as have no lungs, the effects of respiration are performed by the skin; that the absorption of oxygen is greater than is necessary to account for the production of carbonic acid gas, which takes place both from the lungs and from the skin; and that this absorption proceeds after the death of the animal, both when the whole and when only particular parts are confined in certain determined portions of air. The experiments were principally made over mercury, and the air afterward examined by the combustion of phosphorus in Grobert's Eudiometer.

As carbonic acid gas was always found in the air which was made the subject of experiment, it might be supposed that its production was entirely owing to a portion of the oxygen, which disappeared, having united with the carbon of the blood: but the Abbé refuted this idea, by finding that carbonic acid gas might be detected where azote or hydrogen was the medium in which the experiments were conducted.—The absorption of oxygen, and the production of carbonic acid gas, continued during the torpid state of certain animals, provided that they were not in a very low temperature; and in most of the experiments which were made by him, he found that a small quantity of the azote disappeared.—The same results, as has been already observed, were obtained in the experiments which were performed on all the classes of animals. Water animals produce a decomposition of the air contained in the water, and die if it be withdrawn: but the effects now mentioned are not, we are informed, confined to living animal matter; the same process being carried on when dead animals, or particular parts of a dead animal, are the subjects of experiment; and though it exists in a diminished degree, the author considers himself justified in concluding that it is a continuation of the same function which was exercised during life. Boiling, he tells us, did not remove this property. He is of opinion that the immense abstraction of oxygen, which thus continually takes place by means of the animal kingdom, cannot be restored by the evolution of this gas from plants exposed to the light of the sun; and he therefore concludes, without however giving more than a mere conjecture on the subject, that animals have a power of restoring to the atmosphere the oxygen gas which they are continually abstracting from it.

That the motion of the heart depends on the action of blood which has undergone certain changes in the lungs, and has thus become possessed of the power of stimulating, is a fact universally admitted: but the author, while he attributes the whole of this effect to the absorption of oxygen, carries his ideas on its operation so far as to consider it, with Girtanner, as the cause of the irritability of the heart, by its union with the muscular fibres of that organ. He does not expressly attribute muscular irritability, throughout the system, to the agency of oxygen, but this doctrine may be naturally inferred from his reasoning on the subject of the heart: which, it is scarcely necessary to say, is completely hypothetical, if not directly contrary to fact.

The industry and abilities of the Abbé, in his examination of the extensive field of inquiry on which he entered, by undertaking

taking to elucidate the phænomena of respiration, are eminently conspicuous: but most of his experiments only support the opinions of former physiologists. Some of his inductions, indeed, possess a claim to novelty; particularly that in which it is stated that dead animal matter, even after having been boiled, has the same property of absorbing oxygen, and throwing out carbonic acid gas, which it possessed during life. Yet this is an inference which does not apparently lead to any useful conclusion respecting the effects of air on the human body, and should (at least in the extent to which the author carries it,) be received with some degree of caution.

ART. X. *Tableau de la Grande Bretagne,* &c.; *i. e.* A Picture of Great Britain, Ireland, and the Possessions of the English in the four Quarters of the Globe. 4 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1802. Imported by Dulau and Co. London.

THE same curiosity, which prompts us to explore the different countries of the Continent, excites in foreigners a wish to visit the British Isles. Frenchmen are particularly anxious to make themselves acquainted with the real state of that nation which is their most formidable rival; and those of them who have performed the tour of Great Britain and Ireland are supposed to have collected materials for a publication highly instructive and amusing. To us, their details will appear extremely superficial, and in many instances their mistakes and errors will be very glaring: but it may be proper to recollect that the Englishman in France labours under the same disadvantages as the Frenchman in England; and, though we cannot survey a picture of Great Britain by a foreigner, with the expectation of receiving much instruction, it may be some gratification to contemplate the portrait which, *en passant*, he may take of it. The author of these volumes, whose name is BAERT, according to the advertisement prefixed, passed two years in Great Britain and Ireland, and travelled some thousand miles through the united kingdom. He speaks with gratitude of the flattering reception and hospitality which he experienced in the houses of persons of distinction; and he reckons the three months which he spent in the family of Mr. Bingham, the clergyman of Hemel-Hempstead, in Hertfordshire, among the happiest days of his life. In collecting materials, he seems to have been assiduous; and with respect to all English names in particular, they are, generally speaking, more accurately spelt than they are commonly found in French publications of this kind.

M. BAERT commences with a concise account of our canals, mountains, forests, soil and produce, mines, and mineral waters. In this chapter, he delineates the general aspect of the country which it was his object to explore:

'England is an uneven country, interspersed with beautiful groves, and covered with rich pastures, inclosed within live hedges; while a series of smiling hills and charming vallies affords variety and amusement to the traveller. It is crossed by several chains of mountains. The south coast is bordered by calcareous mountains of no great elevation, called *Downs*, which are naked, arid, and produce a very short grass; they spread out towards Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, and are constantly covered with a great number of sheep, producing wool of a good quality. Wales is a great mass of mountains, the most elevated of which is Snowdon, stretching itself into the Irish sea. To the north of the Trent, a long chain of mountains commences, which extend themselves between Lancashire and Yorkshire; and which, with those of Cumberland and the *Cheviot Hills*, communicate with the mountains of Scotland. The most elevated points of this chain are the Peak in Derbyshire, and Ingleborough in Yorkshire.

'There are no real forests in England; for the spaces which retain this name, as Windsor Forest, Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, and the *New Forest* in Hampshire, now present to view only scattered trees with much heath: but through the whole island, sufficient woods, hedges, and trees, are diffused for the purposes of the inhabitants, since their ordinary fuel is pit-coal.

'Its soil, moistened by frequent showers and continual storms, is very fertile in a great number of districts, and is managed with care in those parts which are under culture: but we continually meet with immense tracts, which, though sometimes possessing a good soil, are allowed to remain in a state of nature, and, being common to every body, no one bestows on them any care. England grows an abundance of all kinds of grain, and supports a prodigious quantity of cattle. It produces pulse, potatoes, cabbages, and turnips, but little fruit, except that which is raised in regular gardens. Grapes do not ripen, and apple-trees succeed only in the south. Cyder is made in some counties.'

This sketch possesses as much accuracy as may be expected from a traveller passing through the country, and enough to afford the foreign reader a general idea of it.

The author takes notice of the division of England into counties, or *shires*; and, commencing his narrative at the *Land's End*, he proceeds through Cornwall (which he unfortunately spells *Cornguailles*), Devonshire, Somersetshire, Wiltshire, &c. and gives short descriptions of the counties, principal towns, &c. in the kingdom. We shall translate the account of Middlesex, and (in part) of London:

'The

'The county of Middlesex, which includes London, and which is bounded by the Thames on the south, sends only eight members to parliament, and is very small: but its vicinity to this immense city renders it very rich and populous. Its roads are lined with country-houses, parks, and gardens, enriched with manure; and the banks of the Thames are extremely chearful and varied. Though in general flat, it has some hills towards Harrow, Hampstead, and Barnet. Towards the west, we see heaths and marshy ground, intersected by some well-cultivated land. It produces much hay, pulse, and corn.

'London, the most populous, *perhaps* * the largest of the cities of Europe, and, without doubt, the most important on account of its commerce and riches, is situated on the northern bank of the Thames, about sixty miles from its mouth. It appears to have owed its origin to a Roman colony. Ruined at different times by the Britons and the Danes, it was rebuilt by Alfred, and became the seat of government. It often experienced the ravages of the plague, which, in 1665, destroyed more than 80,000 persons; and fire having almost entirely consumed it in the following year, it was rebuilt with brick; its streets (which before were narrow, crooked, and darkened by the projection of the upper stories, for the most part consisting of wood,) were enlarged and improved; the air circulated more freely; and the epidemics, formerly so frequent, have not since appeared.

'The length of London from *Tyburn Turnpike*, the most western of its barriers (or turnpikes), to *Mile-End*, the most eastern, is about six miles. Its breadth, at the centre, is scarcely a mile, but double towards its two extremities, viz. towards the Tower and Westminster, on account of the bending of the river; it is even three miles broad, if we take in Southwark, that great suburb on the other side of the bridges. The city is continually enlarging towards the west, and uninterrupted strings of houses join it to the villages, which are only one or two miles from the turnpikes.

'London is divided into two cities, viz. London, commonly called *the city*, sending four members to parliament, and Westminster, which, as well as Southwark, sends two. Of the gates which formerly separated these two cities, one only remains, *Temple-Bar*, which it is in contemplation to demolish. Its preservation to the present day has been owing to an antient ceremony. The citizens shut it when the herald at arms comes to announce the accession of a new king to the throne, and they do not open it till he has pronounced the sovereign's name.

'The streets in the city, except those which lead to St. Paul's and the Exchange, are very narrow, with a mean foot-pavement: but Westminster is distinguished by broad streets, which are well lighted, and have handsome foot pavements. It has also a great number of beautiful squares, the centers of which are, for the most part, covered with turf, planted with trees, adorned with some bad statues, and surrounded with iron railing. The houses, as in general

* What business has the *perhaps* in this place? Was there ever a doubt entertained of the fact?

throughout all England, are of brick, two stories high, very lightly constructed, and arranged with the greatest uniformity: consisting of a narrow passage fronting the door, a room towards the street, another backwards looking into the court, and sometimes a closet, which constitutes a little wing *. The kitchens are under ground. The houses are more or less large, according to the different quarters in which they are built; and there is little variety but in their dimensions. The stables and coach-houses are put together in numbers, in places called *Mews*, and are concealed among the masses of buildings. There are some houses, moreover, which might be denominated *hotels* (in the French acceptation of the word, and not in the English), but the number is very limited; perhaps, there cannot be reckoned more than thirty.

'The modern streets of London, and of the other cities of England, are on a construction peculiar to this kingdom. The sides are raised on solid arches, at the height of ten or twelve feet; and the interval, which forms the middle of the street, is filled up with rubbish, but contains the common-sewers which carry away the filth, and the wooden pipes by which the water is conducted into every house. The arches support the foot-pavement, which is from four or five feet broad, while the cavities serve as repositories for coals, which are shot into them through apertures made in the pavement, covered with an iron grating. In the best streets, the pavement is separated from the under-ground story by a little court or area of the same width, which is defended by handsome iron railing. The foot-ways are paved with large flat stones, and the middle of the streets with granite-blocks brought from the neighbourhood of Edinburgh and Aberdeen. For some time past, the greater part of the houses have been built on speculation. The land-owners give up the ground for thirty or forty years to an architect, who builds on it; and after this term the ground, with the houses on it, returns to the proprietor. An act of parliament, in 1774, arranged the different edifices in London into seven classes, viz. churches, manufactories, magazines, houses, &c. and regulated the thickness of the different walls.'

It is unnecessary to specify to the English reader the mistakes in this account. We could not anticipate a more exact one from a foreigner hastily surveying the British metropolis; and he may be excused in apprehending that an act of parliament, the purport of which was only to fix the thickness of the *party-wall*, regulated the thickness of all the walls of the London houses.

Short notices are taken of the churches, (among which St. Paul's occupies the chief attention, and its architecture is scrutinized,) and other public edifices, after which the writer returns to general observations.

* This description certainly applies to great numbers of houses in and about London, but they should be stated as forming only one class.

'The

'The equality and uniformity of the houses, (says he), which announce comfort generally diffused; the cleanliness and decency of the people who crowd the foot-pavements; the great number and beauty of the horses and equipages; the immense quantity and variety of shops, with the articles tastefully arranged; the languid and melancholy air of the inhabitants; the thick vapour rising from the coal fires, which blackens and seems to throw a gloom over every thing; are the circumstances which most attract the stranger on his arrival in London. There every individual appears exclusively occupied with his own affairs, and they rarely meet together except at clubs, at public places, at dinners, or at formal parties. They scarcely ever assemble in private societies. The rich never consider themselves there as at home; it is in the country that they have their establishments; and it is only there that they are expected to live according to their rank. In this immense city, which engulphs such vast wealth, a grand dinner, or a rout given by a foreign minister, are events so remarkable that they are mentioned in all the public papers.'

The nobility, gentry, and opulent citizens of London, who are luxurious in the extreme, who pass their lives in almost one continued round of the most splendid conviviality, and who spend more in sumptuous dinners and entertainments than the citizens of any other town in Europe, will not be able to recognize themselves in this portrait. M. BAERT must have seen very little of London society; for had he been admitted to the tables even of our rich merchants and bankers, such an impression as the above could never have been stamped on his mind. So frequent are dinners on every occasion in the British metropolis, that some persons have been led to remark, in opposition to M. BAERT's statement, that the public business of London seems to be carried on by dinners.

This traveller visits Windsor, Oxford, Blenheim *, Stowe, Norwich, Yarmouth, Cambridge. Birmingham, Colebrook-Dale, Nottingham, Derby, Manchester, Liverpool, Sheffield, Leeds, York, &c. finishing with Cumberland, the lakes of which are thus delineated:

'Its mountains are sufficiently naked and gloomy, though varied in their form, and separated from each other by charming vallies: but those to the west are filled with beautiful lakes, presenting scenes at once the most lovely and the most animated. The lake of Ulswater, which in shape and size much resembles that of Windermere, and the

* Here he remarks on the heavy style of the architecture of the mansion, and thus translates into French the witty epitaph made on Vanburgh,

"Lie heavy on him, Earth; for he
Laid many a heavy load on thee,"

"*O terre! pèse bien sur lui; car il a bien pesé sur toi.*"

aspects

aspects of which, varied to infinity by the different contours of their banks, render the promenade extremely agreeable, present a series of pictures which change successively from the beautiful to the majestic, from the gay to the sublime, consisting of hills covered with pastures, wood, and habitations; of rocks naked and hideous, wild and picturesque intersected by beautiful and roaring cascades; and of amphitheatres of mountains covered with verdure to their tops, and furrowed by numerous rivulets.'

This is such good painting, that the scenes of Cumberland almost "live in description."

The next chapter treats of the isles of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, Sark, and Alderney, here called Origni: but the statements are very concise.

In the chapter on Scotland, which occupies nearly as much space as that which is assigned to England, and contains accounts of the Highlands, Lowlands, Hebrides, Shetland Isles, &c. some quotations are made from Johnson's Tour, the authenticity of Ossian's poems is maintained, and notice is taken of the pretended faculty of *second-sight*. The island of Staffa is not omitted; and with the description of the Grotto of Fingal, a copper-plate of that curious spot is given. Edinburgh, Leith, Glasgow, and Paisley, are duly represented. The effects of the Union on that country, and its state of amelioration, are also considered:

'Agriculture (observes M. Baert) enjoys advantages in Scotland which it does not possess in England, inasmuch as it pays neither tithes nor poor-rates: but, notwithstanding its rapid progress in the *Lowlands*, and the great use of potatoes, it appears that this part does not produce grain adequate to its consumption; so that importations are made of this article from England and Ireland, which is dearer there than in England. Scotland exports in exchange a great quantity of lean cattle; and this market, opened by the Union, compensates her for the loss which she then sustained with respect to her wool, the foreign exportation of which is prohibited, and the sale confined to England, and the price of which is thus materially lowered. Of all the commercial advantages which Scotland has obtained by the Union, says Smith, the augmentation of the price of cattle is perhaps the greatest; since it has excited the industry of the peasants, multiplied enclosures, and visibly improved agriculture. Before this period, only one quarter of a farm at most was manured; the rest was left fallow, and worked successively in patches. There is much uncultivated land at this time even in the good districts of the *Lowlands*; yet less perhaps than in the good districts of England.'

If the writer concludes, from a general view of the subject, that Scotland can never be an opulent country, he celebrates it as having been rich in learned men, of whom he produces a most respectable catalogue. The chapter concludes with a reflection by *Voltaire* on the unfortunate House of Stuart.

Ireland

Ireland is not dismissed with so much brevity as England and Scotland. Its history, constitution, revenue and expenditure, soil and agriculture, manufactures and commerce, religion and population, character, customs and manners, literature and antiquities, and political situation, form the subdivisions of this chapter. Adverting, in the Appendix, to the Union, the author pronounces it to be the most happy circumstance for Ireland which could have taken place; since it will change the face of the country, insure the happiness of three or four millions of inhabitants, and augment in an incalculable manner the prosperity of the United Kingdom.

The chapter on Gibraltar contains a description of this impregnable rock, and of its celebrated siege, concluding with a short discussion of the importance of this fortress to England:

'The utility of Gibraltar to England, especially since this power has lost the commerce of the Mediterranean (when?), has been much disputed. It occasions Spain to be her enemy, and it is said to have cost the nation 500,000 l. sterling, even during the last war, and 20 millions sterling since her possession of it: thus it has often been a matter of debate whether it ought not to be abandoned: but the minister has always been restrained by the importance attached to it in the opinion of the people.'

A view of Gibraltar, taken on the Spanish side, together with a plan of the rock and fortifications, illustrates the narrative. The volume contains moreover maps of England, Scotland, and Ireland; with a plate of the Giant's Causeway.

The first part of the second volume includes an account of our possessions on the continent of America; of our West India islands; of St. Helena, and our settlements on the coast of Africa; and of our territories in the East Indies;—and the remaining part, occupying three-fourths of the volume, is employed in a delineation of the British Constitution, with a commentary on the system of English law. Blackstone's division of Rights of Persons, Rights of Things, Private Wrongs, and Public Wrongs, is minutely followed. It is unnecessary to add that this is a compilation: but to the foreign reader, this portion of the work may be acceptable, because it is founded on good authorities. We cannot peruse it without a smile at seeing our party and cant-terms blended with French expressions; as *Whig and Tory; scot and lot; pocket-sheriff; heads-boroughs* (for head-boroughs), &c.: but we should deem it a waste of time to comment on little errors.

Volume III. treats of the established religion in England, and of the different sects;—of the Court, ranks and dignities, including

including an account of the Royal Family, and of individuals most distinguished in Parliament and in the Administration; of the Forces; Finances; Taxes; Treasury and Exchequer; and of Agriculture, Mines, and Manufactures.

The chapter on our religion conveys to foreigners the following *curious* information:

'Besides Sunday, the English have other holy days; on which the Parliament has preserved the custom of not assembling. A sermon is preached before it on the anniversary of the martyrdom of Charles I.; while, from motives of derision as barbarous as disgusting, some fanatical presbyterians celebrate this event by eating a calf's-head.'

Thus the laugh at the poor presbyterians is gravely converted by the French traveller into a matter of fact: not, however, from any enmity to the sectaries; for soon afterward he gives a description of the clergy, with which they will be as little pleased as the presbyterians with the calf's-head anecdote:

'There are few Atheists in England, but many Deists, *even among the clergy;* who, in general, are very tolerant, both from principle and habit, being surrounded with a multitude of sects who live on peaceable terms with each other. *They are nevertheless given to superstition;* indeed this is the character of the whole nation to a degree which is truly astonishing, if we consider the knowlege which it enjoys. This, however, is owing to their gloomy character; to their frequent perusal of the bible, and of *romances*; and to the prejudice, fortified by law, which prohibits all kinds of diversions on a Sunday, and leaves them no other means of filling up the leisure time which on that day passes heavily away, than by walking, drinking, and relating stories, especially of ghosts; for they believe much in apparitions and witches, and are delighted with the tales of them. The Government, far from attempting to turn the people from these superstitious and romantic ideas, by the introduction of innocent pleasures, such as plays and dancing, determined during the last year to revive, by proclamation, the law which prohibits them on a Sunday, and which makes it criminal to play on that day at cards and dice, even in private houses.'

The Appendix takes notice of the idea suggested in Parliament, of passing a bill to stop the circulation of newspapers on a Sunday. Foreigners, protestants as well as catholics, are surprised at our strict mode of oberving the Lord's day. They make it a festival, and do not regard it as dishonoured or profaned by introducing innocent pleasures as supplements to public devotion. Our opposite practice impresses them with a notion of our being extremely superstitious; and if we are superstitious, they take it for granted that we must believe in witches, ghosts, and hobgoblins.

In the list of celebrated persons in the British Parliament, Messrs. Pitt and Fox * occupy the first place. The latter is pronounced to be the greatest orator that has ever appeared in the House of Commons: Mr. Pitt and Mr. Sheridan are allowed to be more brilliant and flowery: but no one, it is asserted, ever displayed more strength and expansion of mind, more reason and warmth, more energy and impetuosity, than Mr. Fox. He is justly represented as open, courteous, and obliging; as knowing no enemy except on the benches, and as quitting the most stormy sessions of parliament with kind dispositions even towards his rivals. His love of play is noticed as a shade in his character; and Mrs. Fox (here called *mistress Harmsted*) is described as *femme fort laide, mais qui le captive par son esprit.*

Under the head of the British Navy, a complete list (up to January 1799) is given of all our ships of war; in which the name, rate, and number of guns of each ship are specified; and every vessel taken from the enemy is printed in italics, and marked with the initial of the power from which it has been captured. It cannot be gratifying to the French to see the number of F's subjoined to the names of ships in this catalogue.

The account of our manufactories introduces, under the head of Potteries, the name of Wedgwood (spelt here *Wedjewood*) with great respect, as having carried the art of making earthen ware to an astonishing degree of perfection; both in the beauty of its form, by imitating the Etruscan vases of Sir William Hamilton, and in the hardness, firmness, and regular consistence of the material.

The article on the press is very short and imperfect. The author appears to be totally ignorant of our modern improvements in typography, since he makes no mention of any other British printers than Baskerville and Foulis.

In the 4th vol. the subjects are Commerce and Commercial Companies; the Bank of England; Coin; Population; Character, Customs and Manners; the Theatre, and the state of the Sciences, Literature, and the Fine Arts. M. BAERT has collected a multitude of tables relative to our Imports and Exports, has endeavoured to put his countrymen in possession of every interesting particular relative to British Commerce, and expresses his wish that a commercial intercourse subsisted between France and England.

---

* Of whom, portraits are given in two copperplates.

On the subject of Population, the calculations of Dr. Price are represented as those of a person who saw every thing in gloomy colours: but this writer, though he exceeds the Dr's. estimate, stills falls short of the fact, stating the population of England and Wales at only 6,500,000.

The chapter on the customs and manners of the English cannot be perused in this country without a smile. M. BAERT endeavours to give the foreign reader an idea of all our usages at the table, even to our *toasts*; and we are represented as fond of cock-fighting and boxing (a copper-plate is subjoined, depicting the combat between Humphreys and Mendoza), and are reprobated for our propensity to duelling and suicide.

Fewer errors will not be found in the sketch given of our literature, than in that which is exhibited of our customs and manners. Shakspeare meets with the same treatment from M. BAERT as from other French writers. Among our modern authors, Dr. Johnson is highly praised; and *the World*, *the Adventurer*, and *the Mirrour*, are assigned to him as well as *the Rambler* and *the Idler*. He is pronounced to be the best English writer that the last age produced.

After having gone through the various details which constitute this compilation, the writer endeavours to give a general view of the British people:

'Such, (says he,) is this nation so justly celebrated; which, with a marked character belonging to every individual, unites qualities the most opposite and contrasts the most striking, of haughtiness and servility, of nobleness and venality, of hard-heartedness and humanity, of surliness and of bashfulness: of reason, judgment, and information, and of religious follies and prejudices of all kinds: of the pride of liberty, with pressing for the navy, and perpetual engagements in the army: of a prodigality almost always ridiculous, and an economy often sordid: of great exterior ostentation, with niggardliness in domestic life:—the women discreet, timid, and modest; the men often bold, debauched, and drunken, making husbands who love their wives, and yet treat them with contempt: displaying the appearance of the most perfect equality, while all rank and precedence are marked and rigorously disputed even in public places: where an air of ease is generally diffused, the appearance of misery scarcely ever striking the eye, or wounding the heart, and yet their countenances carry the marks of sadness and melancholy: where the liberty of the press, designed to protect the citizens, is become their scourge:—a people active and courageous in their enterprizes, but cold and insensible in their pleasures; who talk incessantly of sentiment and domestic happiness, and yet are continually seeking dissipation and pleasure, abandoning their children in their youth, and casting off their relations in their old age: who, with energy, reflection, and love of independence, blindly adopt in public affairs the mode of thinking prescribed by the head

head of a party: who exclusively love their own country, its customs, and manner of living and society, and yet from which many individuals voluntarily banish themselves for life; who, from a restlessness, avidity, and ambition, neither love nor desire any thing but war; and who nevertheless ascribe the prosperity of their country to commerce, which is essentially founded in peace.'

'Such,' continues this author, 'is the English nation.'—We venture to say, such is *not* the English nation. Some of the features are tolerably exact: but the whole is a caricature. This and other extracts, however, we have made less for the purpose of criticizing them than for that of amusing the reader; for were we to notice all the mistakes in this work, we must have extended the article to a tedious length.

ART. XI. *Les Liliacées*, &c.; *i. e.* The Liliaceous Plants. By P. J. REDOUTÉ, Painter to the National Museum of Natural History. Large Folio. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s. each Number.

PLANTS of the Lily tribe seem to have been peculiarly destined to enliven their native abodes, and to decorate our gardens, by the singular elegance of their forms and the varied gaiety of their attire. In their very character and habits, they betray an undefined gracefulness, which has in all ages attracted the regards of taste and sensibility: while the votaries of Flora have struggled in vain to embalm the passing glories of the Tulip, and have lamented with a sigh that Amaryllis was born to bloom and perish.

Though a coloured engraving of a plant must ever fall short of the original, it may often be substituted with advantage in the room of a dried specimen, which so imperfectly represents its living state. M. REDOUTÉ even flatters himself that he can catch a perfect transcript, and retain on his splendid pages those brilliant hues and delicate tints which were formerly deemed inimitable or evanescent. This we cannot positively assert: but we feel no hesitation in declaring that his plates, to the best of our knowlege, are nearly unrivalled in excellence; and that, if every vegetable species were exhibited in the same masterly style, the study of botany would be converted into an easy and elegant amusement.

The seven numbers (*livraisons*) now on our table include figures and descriptions of *Dianella ensifolia*, *Lachenalia tricolor*, *Hemerocallis Japonica*, *Amaryllis formosissima*, *Tigridia pavonia*, *Agapanthus umbellatus*, *Lilium pomponium*, *Puncratium maritimum*, *Amaryllis reginæ*, *Amaryllis vittata*, *Gladiolus Merianus*, *Antholiza Cimonia*, *Helonias bullata*, *Hyacinthus amethystinus*,

Hemerocallis flava, Hemerocallis fulva, Narcissus tazetta, Iris Suziana, Cypripedium calceolus, Cypripedium flavescens, Albuca minor, Lachenalia pallida, Iris Florentina, Narcissus bulbocodium, Merendera bulbocodium, Methonica superba, Crinum erubescens, Ferraria undulata, Iris sisyrinchium, Ixia filiformis, Amaryllis atamasco, Amaryllis equestris, Amaryllis Sarniensis, Ixia longiflora, Gladiolus tristis, Gladiolus cuspidatus, Tulipa Clusiana, Tulipa Celsiana, Hæmanthus coccineus, Alstræmeria ligta, Galaxia ixiæflora, and *Vipusseuxia glaucopis.* This list is given according to the order of publication: but, as the work is executed on loose and unnumbered sheets, it may, when completed, be made up in conformity to any scientific arrangement.

The author's professional situation enabled him to take his drawings from existing specimens, and, in almost every instance, to give separate delineations of the parts of fructification. Here we need scarcely remind our readers that hothouse plants frequently assume a physiognomy different from that which they exhibit in their native habitations; and on this account, we are disposed to make considerable allowances for an effeminate air which the pencil has here imparted to some of the exotic species.

Most of the descriptions are accurate and copious; and those minute yet permanent distinctions, on which specific differences are frequently founded, are detailed with correct discrimination. The title and magnificence of the work had led us to expect also some introductory remarks on the term *Liliaceous*, a sketch of the genera which are comprehended under that denomination, more ample lists of synonyms, and a greater richness and diversity of critical and economical observations.

With respect to innovations on the established nomenclature, the author may usually plead the sanction of *Jussieu, Lamarck*, or some distinguished naturalist. *Gloriosa superba* has been changed to *Methonica superba*, in compliance with the Linnéan maxim that no generic appellation should be an adjective; and the *Bulbocodium vernum* of *Desfontaines* has been designed *Merendera bulbocodium*, in consequence of *Ramond*'s récent and ingenious account of this beautiful and singular plant. Some of our English botanists will, doubtless, perase with eagerness the description of *Gladiolus cuspidatus:* but we select for translation an article of still greater novelty:

'TULIPA CELSIANA.

'FAMILY of LILIES. JUSS. HEXANDRIA MONOGYNIA. LIN.

'*Tulipa Celsiana.* T. caule unifloro glabro, flore erecto (luteo), foliis lanceolato-linearibus canaliculatis, petalis glabris.

'CELSIAN

'Celsian Tulip.

'Description.

'This species has a great affinity to the mountain Tulip, ye obviously differs from it in certain constant characters. It is uniformly only half the size of the latter; its leaves are narrower, and more decidedly channelled. Its flower is upright, and perfectly smooth. Even the roots present marked differences in their modes of growth. The new bulbs of the mountain Tulip proceed from the sides of the old one; whereas, in the Celsian, the new bulb originates in the lower part of the old, and is generally separated from it by a sort of elongated pedicellum. These bulbs are rounded, of the size of a hazel-nut, covered with a brown coat which is glossy on both sides, is somewhat serrated at top, and surrounds the base of the stem.

'From this root springs a single, herbaceous, cylindrical, smooth, upright stalk, about one decimetre in height, a little reddish, naked towards the top, and bearing at its base three or four wide-spread lanceo-linear, pointed, spout-bent leaves, slightly reddish at the edges, quite smooth, and somewhat exceeding the length of the stalk. The sprouting of the plant is first indicated by a linear leaf; which issues, in an almost vertical direction, from the bulb, and anticipates the appearance of the stem.

'The latter is surmounted by a solitary flower, yellow, upright, slightly fragrant, and smaller than that of the mountain Tulip. The petals are oblong, acute, inclined to separate expansion, from three to four centimetres long, and perfectly smooth. The upper surface of all the petals is pure yellow: but the three outer have their under surfaces of an orange red, and the three inner present the same shading only at their tops.

'The stamens are upright, from ten to fifteen millimetres in length. The three which are placed before the three outer petals are rather shorter than the others, and are the first to shed their pollen. The filaments are yellow and awl-shaped; the anthers upright, oblong, and of the same colour with the filaments.

'The pistil consists of an ovary above the corolla. It is greenish, with three sides and three angles, crowned by three thick, short, yellowish stigmata, slightly furrowed at top.

'I have never seen the ripe fruit of this liliaceous plant.

'History.

'This plant has been cultivated for some years in the rich garden of Cit. *Cels*, where it blossoms in spring. The flower continues expanded for some days.

'The native country of this species of Tulip is unknown. Cit. *Cels* received it from Harlem, under the name of Persian Tulip. This circumstance, combined with certain specific analogies observable in the genus, may justify the presumption of its eastern origin.

'Observations.

'Although specific designations are usually destined to represent distinctive characters, there are some kinds which seem to be parti-

cularly consecrated to the gratitude of naturalists, and bear the names of those botanists who have most successfully unfolded their history. Under the impression of this sentiment, I have bestowed on a new Tulip the name of that practical botanist, whose garden, ever open to the lovers of Natural History, contributes to enlarge the empire of that science; and who himself extends its boundaries by his acute and various observations on the growth and philosophy of plants.'

It may be proper to note that the names of M. REDOUTÉ's engravers are *Tassaert*, *Langlois* (V. and C.) *Lemercier*, *de Gouy*, and M^lle^ *Chailleu*.

We are happy to learn, from a few handsome lines prefixed to the 5th No. and addressed to the celebrated *Chaptal*, that public encouragement has animated the author in the prosecution of his plan. Indeed, when we reflect that he is the sole proprietor of a publication which emulates the costly productions of royal munificence, we cannot too forcibly recommend his undertaking to the patronage of all who are able and willing to promote science and the imitative arts.

ART. XII. *Traité d'Economie Politique*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on Political Economy, or a plain Account of the Manner in which Riches are acquired, circulated, and expended. By JOHN BAPTIST SAY, Member of the Tribunate. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. sewed.

THE branch of knowlege denominated public economy had attracted attention, and been diligently investigated, previously to the time of Dr. Adam Smith: but it is allowed that he found it in its infancy, and that his exertions brought it at once to maturity. Never did a science owe so much to one man; extensive and complicated as the subject is, he almost exhausted it, and left few points which need elucidation, or errors which require correction. Yet his labours are not exempt from human imperfections. If minds of considerable native strengh, and habituated to abstract inquiries, become, by a perusal of his work, masters of the topics on which it treats; persons of a different character lay it aside before they have advanced far in it, or, if their perseverance exceeds their comprehension, their resolution goes unrewarded. This failure and its consequences are not wholly to be ascribed to the abstruseness of the points discussed, but are imputable in a great degree to faults in the performance itself. If it everywhere discloses important principles, indubitable facts, sound reasoning, and apt illustrations; still, if we take the whole together, we perceive that the excellent matter presented to us has not been properly arranged, that much which is extrane-

ous

ous is introduced, and that subjects distinct in their nature are not kept separate.

Under these circumstances, though we have all the information presented to us, yet, before we can treasure it in our minds, we must take the trouble of sorting and methodizing its different heads: but it is the object of M. Say's publication to furnish this task ready accomplished to our hands. It has been the aim of the author to give a connected systematic view of the discoveries, doctrines, and illustrations of our illustrious countryman, to clear up the few points which he has left obscure, to rectify the few slight mistakes into which he fell, and to render the whole easy of comprehension to the generality of readers; and, in our judgment, he possesses claims to commendation as well for the design as for the manner in which he has executed it. We do not deem his method liable to many exceptions: but, as his province did not extend beyond that of exhibiting to more advantage what was already known, the style as well as the arrangement was intitled to attention; and we think that he should have spared no pains in order to have endowed it with the advantages of conciseness and perspicuity.

In a preliminary discourse, the author gives a brief but accurate sketch of the origin and progress of this science. He observes that, till a late period, mankind had been unacquainted with this branch of knowlege. The Economics of Xenophon treat only of domestic economy; while his discourse on the revenues of Athens serves merely to shew how indistinct were the notions of the antients. He considers the ignorance prevalent in this department as strongly instanced in the conduct of Henry IV. of France; who, though an enlightened and patriotic prince, was wont to bestow on his favourites and mistresses, as rewards which cost him nothing, the right of subjecting articles of commerce to a thousand little charges. *Sully*'s notions of the matter were vague, and rested on no principles; and *Vauban*, (says the author,) a philosopher in camps, and a soldier who loved peace, in the plans by which he proposed to raise France from the impoverished state into which the vain glory of Louis XIV. had plunged her, shewed only his patriotism and his moral worth, while he proved himself to have been an utter stranger to the sources whence a nation must draw its wealth.

M. Say is of opinion that *Montesquieu*, in political economy as in legislation, disseminated a number of brilliant errors: but he seems disposed to allow to him the honour of having been the master of the English writers; who, he also admits, are said to have been the instructors of the French. If *Montesquieu* did impart instruction to us on this head, he can

scarcely be said to have made compensation for that which he derived from our political writers on the subject of government.

About the middle of the last century, appeared Dr. *Quesnay*, whose notions attracted general attention, and procured a number of followers. The zeal of the disciples for their master, and the estimation in which they held his opinions, occasioned them to be denominated a sect, the famed sect of the Economists. The present author allows to this school the praise of proclaiming some important truths, with that of directing the attention to objects of public utility; and the good effects of these services remain, while the mischiefs arising from their demerits have disappeared, and are forgotten. One thing, with respect to the economists, (he says) cannot be denied, and it intitles them to the gratitude and esteem of mankind; their labours have been favourable to strict morality, and to the rights of men in disposing of their persons and goods. All the respectable writers who appeared in France, between 1760 and 1780, were evidently swayed by the maxims of this celebrated sect: but *Turgot* was rather their friend and patron than their disciple; he saw their errors, and held opinions peculiar to himself.

The author thus announces the appearance of the work of our great countryman:

'In 1776, Adam Smith, an élève of that Scotch school which produced so many literati, historians, philosophers, and learned men of the first order, presented to the public his "Inquiry into the nature and causes of the Wealth of Nations." When this performance was read, it was perceived that there was no political economy before Dr. Smith. The writings of the economists were no doubt of use to him, as well as the conversation which he had with estimable and learned Frenchmen in his several visits to Paris: but between the doctrines of that sect and his own, there exists as great a difference as that which separates the system of Tycho Brahe from the philosophy of Newton. Many of the facts which occur in his treatise were before known: but he first pointed out their connection, and traced them to the laws of nature. He has not only confirmed truths, but has set a mark on errors. His work is a series of demonstrations, which have elevated many propositions to the rank of first principles, and have plunged a number of others into that gulph in which false systems, vague ideas, and extravagant conceits struggle for an instant, before they disappear for ever.'

M. Say then vindicates Dr. Smith from the charge of having borrowed from Stewart without acknowleging his obligations. We have sometimes heard this accusation preferred, but never have known it supported in any other way than by general assertions. Stewart's object was to persuade the public that

that the riches of a nation depend on the quantity of its exports; and that of the partisans of *Quesnay*, that they consist solely of the produce of agriculture. There is good in each system, but they are both fundamentally false, and Smith has demonstrated them to be so. The system of Stewart was not invented by him, but had been long known before he adopted it; and Dr. Smith, therefore, in refuting it, was not required to refer to him in particular.

As it is the sole object of the publication before us to exhibit the theory of Dr. Smith in a new and improved form, it will not be expected that we should do more than announce its grand divisions, and note some of those passages in which its principles are neatly stated, happily elucidated, or strikingly illustrated. The work is divided into three parts, the first of which treats of produce, the second of circulation, and the third of consumption, which M. Say distinguishes from expenditure.

The author very ingeniously applies the principle of the division of labour to the practices of forestalling and engrossing; and we could wish that declaimers against them would peruse his observations. They would then see that they must either abate their clamours, or new-model a disquisition which has been generally admired, and from which Dr. Smith obtained so much praise. He also well illustrates the superior interest which a state has in a capital invested in land, by remarking that no trace remains of many among the most flourishing of the Hanseatic towns; while Lombardy and Flanders, in spite of the wars of which they have often been the theatre, rank among the best cultivated and most populous countries in Europe.

A well known doctrine of Dr. Smith, which runs directly counter to former notions, is thus stated by M. Say. When a nation has a surplus of produce of one kind, the way to dispose of it is to create that of another kind. It is when no object of exchange can be furnished at home, that exportation becomes profitable; and also when it procures commodities which grow solely in another climate: but the most profitable sales are those which a nation makes to itself, because they can only take place by the production of two values at home; that which is sold, and that which is bought. Exportation is then merely supplemental to interior consumption, and less beneficial than it.

In opposition to the opinions of the ablest writers, and to the most eloquent and forcible reasoning that is any where to be found, the author contends that servile is more efficient than free labour; and that the service of the slave, impelled

by the whip, exceeds that of the volunteer workman. Not only have publicists of the first order maintained an opposite doctrine, but powerful and enlightened sovereigns have been desirous of acting on other principles. Czars of Russia and kings of Poland wished to abolish slavery throughout their dominions. Was Europe in a higher state of culture, was greater labour bestowed on tillage, when serfs and villains were principally engaged in the business of husbandry? M. SAY does not sufficiently distinguish between the abstract question and the particular case. He considers the aversion of planters to the emancipation of their slaves as an unsurmountable argument against all the conclusions of the best writers: but we were astonished to find so able a person hazard so weak an observation. Was there ever a practice that once generally prevailed in husbandry, or trade, in defence of which the same argument might not be urged? Have not those who have been long accustomed to usages the most incommodious, and customs the most preposterous, shewn a bigotted attachment to them, and a decided unwillingness to abolish them? It was with much difficulty that, at no great distance of time from the present, the people of some districts in Ireland could be induced to abandon the practice of attaching the plough to the tails of the horses: but will it be contended that this barbarous mode was superior to that of putting the animals in harness?

The writer's system of colonization is not, in the abstract, liable to objection; and, could the tranquillity of Europe be restored, and established on a permanent base, it would be as eligible as it is reasonable: but a state which should act on it, in the present circumstances of the world, would be guilty of gigantic folly, and expose itself to ridicule by its magnanimity.

Among many excellent observations, which might have been more forcibly urged and farther extended, we should recommend the following to declaimers against farmers and monopolists. The author is treating of the trade in corn:

'Of all the articles of home produce, none is so little capable of being monopolized as corn. A monopoly of this kind requires an immense capital, for it is only supposed to take place in years of scarcity; and it is an article of most diffusive growth, which covers a vast space, and which is in the hands of a great number of people, so that it cannot be monopolized but by acts extending almost to all the points of a territory, and by the intervention of a multitude of agents. It is also one of the most bulky articles, and consequently one of those which is conveyed and stored at the most expence; one which requires to be kept with great care, and that is liable to very important alterations prejudicial to the owner, which are the more serious in proportion as the quantity on which he speculates is greater. If we

are

are to regard the clamours always prevalent in bad years, we should believe that every neighbourhood had its monopolist; while the above representation clearly shews that they must be very rare beings; or rather that it is impossible that they should exist to the extent supposed. The prepossessions against dealers in corn are of great public detriment, as they occasion the trade to be shunned by respectable persons, and to be thrown into the hands of low people.'

The manufacture of the Gobelins at Paris, it is well known, is conducted by the government; and it is carried on, as might be expected, at a considerable loss. The author remarks that it may be said that this sacrifice is necessary, because the undertaking furnishes articles proper for presents to be made by the rulers of the state, and such as are required to adorn its palaces: but, he adds, if a nation be better governed in consequence of this sumptuous liberality and internal magnificence, it needs not add to this expence the loss incurred by speculations ill conducted. Let it fairly buy what it thinks proper to give; and it will procure better articles, at a less expence, because individuals manufacture at a cheaper rate than governments.

M. Say is of opinion that government can best serve commerce by leaving it to its own course, and assisting its operations by canals, roads, and public buildings; and instead of keeping the soldiery idle in garrisons in time of peace, he would have them employed on useful public works. The statesman who should introduce this change would, in his judgment, acquire first-rate glory, and the benedictions of mankind.

The discussion, which here occurs, of the important question whether the prosperity of one country is injurious to that of another, is perspicuous, convincing, and worthy of an admirer and disciple of Dr. Smith. We wish that M. Say could diffuse among his countrymen the same liberal and well-founded sentiments; and that he could render his government satisfied of their justice and soundness. Could he persuade it to adopt them, and act up to them, he also would intitle himself to the gratitude of millions on each side of the water.

'Does England,' he says, 'possess a number of precious things; why should this hinder us from obtaining similar treasures? If England has more cotton, is it not in our power to secure more silk? Spain, in proportion to its size and population, boasts more specie than any country in Europe, and yet it is considered as one of the most indigent. It is the interest of a state to have a rich neighbour, which proves a fairer and larger dealer in its surplus articles. It was this conviction that, in 1802, determined the United States of North America to civilize the Creeks. It wished to make them owners of produce, in order that it might have dealings with them, and that the one might have the power to buy that which the other had the desire to sell.'

The writer intimates that this country, while it holds out profitable relations to France, is likely to supplant it in its commerce with other nations, and to deprive it of advantages which it would otherwise enjoy. We shall not vindicate ourselves, because the author does not impute any blame to us on this account: but, had he done so, he might have been answered by observations furnished by himself. He asks; 'are we to arm because Britain may possess herself of some of our foreign markets? I do not believe that there is any one country, the traffic with which yields profit sufficient to pay the interest of the principal swallowed by a war, without adverting to all the ills which follow in its train.' He then enters into a calculation in support of this assertion; and he adds that apprehensions of being thus outdone by its rival are chimerical, which he very satisfactorily proves.

M. *Garnier* had pointed out, * in his notes, the error of Dr. Smith with regard to the head of productive labour; which, however, he was by no means the first to detect. The author before us traces the mistake to its source, and sets the matter in a very clear light. He observes that Dr. Smith had combated the position of the economists, that the raw commodity alone constituted riches; and that he made a large stride in the science, when he advanced that the first material, with the labour superadded, formed riches. As he raised value (an abstract thing,) to the rank of wealth, how came he to estimate it as nothing when it exists alone, not inherent in any material substance? He considered value much at large, deducting from it the gross material, which was its substratum; he ascertained the causes which determine value; and he regarded it as the measure the most sure and least variable of all others; yet he allowed only exchangeable value, capable of being preserved, to constitute riches; while he denied that distinction to value equally unchangeable, but which is consumed the moment it is created:—as the advice of a physician, the decree of a judge, the argument of an advocate, the performance of a musician, or the part of an actor. These contributions satisfy wants, and society could not exist without some of them at least. Are not the fruits of these labours real? They are so real that they are procured only at the price of that which the same person honours with the name of riches; and in consequence of repeated exchanges in the same way, the possessors of this immaterial value, those engaged in this labour termed unproductive, realize large fortunes. The author appears to us to concede too much, when, without qualification, he admits that

* See Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 509.

these

these persons do not swell the capital of a country. We cannot see why a skilful physician, an able judge, an upright magistrate, and the class which contributes to amusement, have not value in the inventory of a society, as well as stock, furniture, food, and clothing. Without them, the palpable capital would never have accumulated; remove them, and it will dissipate with incredible rapidity.—He observes that professional skill, like other produce, is formed by a consumption of toil, by the application of labour: that it has the same origin, and exhibits the same characteristics, which distinguish other kinds of wealth; and that consequently it is, on the principles introduced and established by Dr. Smith, itself wealth.

In his second book, M. Say considers the subject of money. Sir James Stewart had observed that an account of the tricks played with the current coin by different governments, in order to serve temporary purposes, would fill a large volume: which certainly would have proved an instructive one, if accompanied with a statement of the reasons which rendered the measure ineffectual as well as unjust, and of the ill consequences which resulted from it. The disquisition before us is an attempt to effect this purpose, and a successful one as far as it goes; the plan of the work not allowing the author to enter into it much at large.

Independently of the considerations which shew that money is neither *a sign* nor *a measure*, the original language used with respect to it, and which he would wish to see revived, refutes those notions. Originally, the precious metals passed by weight, and were described by it; and M. Say conceives that, if it were now designated in the same way, if in the operations of commerce the weight of the metal and its degree of alloy were expressed, the basis on which false ideas have been built would be withdrawn, the possibility of fraudulent practices removed, and trading transactions rendered more simple and easy. Were money *a sign*, he says, its value would be arbitrary, and sovereigns might raise or lower it *ad libitum*: but their inability to effect this, in every instance in which it has been attempted, shews that the value of the article, like that of any other produce, is of a positive nature, determined by the established order of things. Having described the variations which the value of the precious metals have undergone, and those which they bear at the same time in different countries, he asks; can that be *a measure* which varies its length at different periods, and in different places? Money then, he says, is an article of merchandise, the value of which is regulated in each contract which is made by the agreement of the parties; and

it

it cannot be *a measure*, the first and essential quality of which is to be invariable.

If the precious metals have severally no invariable value, so as to constitute them fit measures of all other values, there can be no such thing as a fixed relative value between them. This is clear *à priori*, and the fact corresponds with it. Gold has in modern times advanced in its relative value to silver, above what it was among the antients, in the proportion of 3 to 4. Silver is now to gold in the proportion of about 15 to 1, while antiquity represents it as being in that of about $11\frac{1}{4}$ to 1. In France, previously to the gold coinage in 1785, a louis was worth 24 livres 8 or 10 sous: and therefore, when the agreement was for so much livres, the payment was never made in gold, because the consequence would have been that the buyer would have paid 8 or 10 sous too much in every 24 livres. In that coinage, the balance was restored by subtracting part of its former weight from the livre.—It is also stated by M. Say that, in England, in 1728, the natural course of exchange settled the value of a guinea in silver at 21 shillings; that is, in the proportion of $15\frac{2}{10}$ to 1. An act of parliament was passed, fixing the proportion between the metals at the then actual rate: but this proceeding arose from ignorance of the variable relative value of these metals, and time soon discovered the gross error into which the legislature had fallen. The demand for silver augmented; a taste for plate diffused itself; and the trade to the East undergoing a most rapid increase, silver rose in value, and the proportion between it and gold became as about $14\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. In commerce, an ounce of gold sells for $14\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of silver. If contracts made for pounds sterling are paid in silver, they must be discharged at the rate of $15\frac{2}{10}$; while in gold $14\frac{1}{2}$ will go as far; and hence the payments are made in gold. A difference of about 8d. in the pound sterling thus arises; and when a new silver coinage is issued, it is bought up for the sake of this profit, and melted down again. This is also the cause of worn out silver coin, which balances more nearly with that of the gold, being seen in circulation. Surely this anomaly, in a country so dependent on its commerce, ought not to be suffered to remain.—The interests of the public, it is here observed, require that an ounce of gold and an ounce of silver ought to be left to find their different values in the exchanges in which they are used; and it is idle to attempt to fix the value of that which is in itself liable to momentary variations. Persons who are engaged in a traffic in precious metals, or in trades connected with them, are always comparing the intrinsic with the current value of money; and

and when these do not correspond, they convert the difference into a profit for themselves. This circumstance renders it necessary that those who watch over the interests of the public should take care that the current value should be, as nearly as possible, the same with the real value of money.

In the following passage, prejudices which have infected all the French publicists give way, and the spirit of Dr. Smith's school prevails:

'The English (says the author) sell us certain commodities 25 per cent. cheaper than they can be obtained from any other nation; and they do not lose by the traffic, because they can fabricate them at a rate lower by that sum, while we gain by the economy which prevails in their manufactures. This cheapness, occasioned by their superior contrivances, is also the cause of numbers of our fellow-citizens sharing in enjoyments which would otherwise be out of their reach.—It were to be desired, no doubt, that we had capital and industry sufficient to produce these articles at home; since thus we should gain a profit and salaries which we do not obtain at present: but the foreign supply occasions us no loss, nor does it either obstruct or confine our industry; it is a want of capital which produces this effect.'

How different is this fair admission from the miserable declamations of some late political writers, who represent the importation of British goods as robbing France, as paralizing its industry, and strengthening its rival! whereas, as the author justly observes, the sole effect of this traffic is to supply the country, at a low price, with commodities which it must procure elsewhere at a higher rate.

In treating on the subject of revenues, M. Say agitates the famous question of literary property, and is bold enough to give a decided opinion in favour of the claims of authors and their assigns to copy-right. On this point he thus expresses himself: 'I regard the thoughts contained in a book as its substantial part. Consequently, the printer who multiplies copies of a work, of which the original substance has not been assigned to him, is in the same predicament with him who steals the gold of which he constructs vases, according to a pattern which he has bought. The fruit of genius is the property of him who produces it, by that law which gives to a man a property in his own productions.' We have in this country an act of parliament, which vests in an author and his assigns, for a certain term, the right for which the author here contends: but, since the commencement of this reign, it became a matter of dispute whether this statute created a right, or was declaratory, and restrictive of an existing one founded in natural justice. Had M. Say been acquainted with these discussions, in which most acute

acute and enlightened reasoners took a part, we apprehend that he would have expressed himself less confidently on the subject.

The author has given a very interesting chapter on the independence and superior comforts derived by the moderns from the spirit of enterprize fostered among them in commerce, manufactures, and arts. Loans, he observes, in the middle ages were principally advanced to those whose affairs were in a deranged state; and the prejudice against taking interest for them was therefore, at that time, less unreasonable than at present, when they frequently proved more advantageous to the borrower than the lender. He condemns laws made to regulate rates of interest, and is surprised that Dr. Smith should be their defender, when all the principles of his work militate against such enactments. The fair limit of interest, he says, arises from the proportion which subsists between those who lend and those who borrow; and, like every other commercial concern, it ought to be left to find its own level. Laws, bearing hard on insolvent debtors, have been considered as unfavourable to borrowers: but this idea he regards as a mistake, because such laws dispose monied men more readily to lend, and make them contented with lower interest.

In the last division of this work, which treats of the expenditure or consumption of riches, M. Say observes that, as there is no such thing as an absolute creation, (that is, a creation of the original substance,) but as produce, in the sense in which he has used it, is a creation of utility (a creation of value), so consumption is not an absolute distinction, but a distinction of utility or of value. Consumption is either reproductive or unproductive; in the former case, it gives rise to gain; in the latter, to enjoyment.—He thinks that much of the misery, which exists in the world, arises from ill-judged expenditure, or from not employing the means possessed on proper objects. 'I know (he says) villages which labour under a constant want of water, and yet expend on one day which they celebrate as a feast more money than it would cost them to bring water to their doors, and to construct a public fountain. They prefer to get drunk one day in twelve months, in honour of their patron saint, and drink brackish water, brought from the distance of a quarter of a league, all the rest of the year.'

The strange maxim so much maintained by the economists, that consumption or expenditure enriches a nation, is here placed by the side of Dr. Smith's doctrine, by which means its absurdity is abundantly manifested. The sophisms with which the common sense of mankind has been insulted, in regard to expenditure, loans, debt, and taxes, are also satisfactorily exposed;

posed; and it is clearly shewn that societies are affected by these measures in the same way with individuals.

The proposition that capital can alone call forth and support industry leads to a number of very important conclusions in political economy. By means of this postulatum, it is proved that he who annually saves a part of his income is a greater friend to society, and to the poor, than he who dissipates the whole, or who intrenches on his capital. The author thus illustrates this point:

'A rich man, who has five thousand a year, and who has been in the habit of spending the whole of his income, resolves to diminish his expences. He therefore lessens the number of his servants, and is better attended; he buys fewer jewels, and becomes less the object of malignant observations; he gives less splendid dinners, and obtains better friends; in short, instead of spending five thousand a year, he spends only four; and from the end of the first year, he adds a thousand pounds to his capital. The five thousand pounds which compose his income are indeed all expended, but only four unproductively, and the fifth is made to reproduce itself with profit. He lends this sum to a manufacturer, whose concern was in a languishing state. The lacqueys, the jewellers, and the dealers in costly ornaments, find the demand for their services and articles diminished: but those who furnished clothing, eatables, and raw materials for the manufacturer, find the demands on them increased in the same proportion. The encouragement given to industry by the reproductive capital is the same with that which is derived from the portion applied to the enjoyments and pleasures of the individual: but we must not stop short here. In fact, there has been an increase of revenue with the man of wealth, and another with the manufacturer and his workmen. The rich lender has had his revenue increased by fifty pounds; the manufacturer has made a profit of another fifty; and the salaries of the workmen have been greater by three times the same sum; making in the whole two hundred and fifty pounds. The consumptions, then, this year, might have been five thousand two hundred and fifty pounds, instead of five thousand, which they would have been had the rich man expended his whole income upon himself. Besides, the thousand pounds which occasioned the increase of two hundred and fifty pounds still exists, and is capable in every ensuing year of generating the same effects.'

We have been in the habit of lamenting the increase of corruption, and the danger to liberty arising from the funding system: but the author adds that, by rendering wars more frequent and of longer duration, it may be considered as a system more destructive of human life than the discovery of gunpowder. He justly considers it, however, as indispensible in the present situation of the world; and he thinks that, as it can exist only where a representative government prevails, we may

expect that this form will hereafter be introduced into the several states of Europe.

We could with great satisfaction accompany the author through the patriotic, luminous, and convincing discussions which occur towards the close of his work: but we have already reached our limits. In concluding, we would observe that this instructive performance, though not absolutely free from the charge of flattering the existing government, and of dealing out invectives against Great Britain, is much more sparing of both than most of the productions relative to subjects of this kind, which of late have issued from the Parisian press. Until some competent person shall, in our vernacular language, render the service to the doctrines of Dr. A. Smith which is here attempted by a foreigner, we think that a translation and judicious abridgement of the volumes before us would not be ill received by the public.

ART. XIII. *Traité Medico-Philosophique sur l'Alienation Mentale*, &c. *i. e.* A Medico-Philosophical Treatise on Mental Derangement, or Madness. By PH. PINEL, Professor in the School of Medicine of Paris, &c. With Plates, representing the form of the Skulls or Portraits of the deranged. 8vo. pp. 217. Paris.

IT is much to be lamented that, though there are many physicians of learning and ability in this country, who are solely occupied in attending cases of mental derangement, very few observations have hitherto appeared, which tend either to elucidate the nature of this disease, or to improve the practice adopted in the treatment of it. We should feel much satisfaction in having it in our power to announce a comprehensive practical work on this subject, by one of our own countrymen, whose opportunities may be extensive; and we hope that the example of M. PINEL, in thus bringing forward the results of his experience, may not be altogether lost on them. His feelings seem to be in unison with ours; and he expresses much surprise and disappointment that the English, who have so greatly succeeded in cases of this nature, should be so very sparing of the valuable observations which practice cannot fail to afford. He deserves much credit for the zeal with which he has prosecuted his observations on the various species of insanity; and though he cannot be said to have made any material improvement in the cure of them, or to have effected any striking melioration in their arrangement, he has produced a great number of facts which may be perused with interest and advantage. The moral care of maniacs, that in which the judicious physician has it so much in his power to display his

skill and discernment, and on which the author peculiarly insists, is less dependent on specific rules of universal application, than on the reasonings founded on particular cases. The thinking mind will scarcely suffer any instance to pass over, without drawing from it some share of useful information: but, when the various modifications of derangement are considered, it cannot be expected that many of the cases which are here related can ever admit of a direct application.

M. PINEL founds his claim to experience in the subjects which he now discusses, on the opportunities enjoyed by him during the time of his being physician to the Bicêtre, a very extensive lunatic hospital in the neighbourhood of Paris; and on the peculiar bias which always led him to turn his attention to the observation of mental derangement. After an introduction of considerable length, he enters on the consideration of periodic, or intermittent madness, which forms the first section of his work: the second is occupied with the moral treatment of the deranged: the third, with anatomical inquiries into the defects in the conformation of the skulls of the insane: the fourth presents us with the author's division of mental derangement into distinct species: the fifth, with his ideas on the internal police which should be adopted in a lunatic hospital; and the sixth concludes the volume, by giving the principles of medical regimen for the insane.

The author is of opinion, that the irregular mania is better adapted for observation than the regular: but he does not consider the varying nature of the attack as so much depending on the causes whence it may have originated, as on the different constitution of the individuals affected. A robust man, of a lively imagination, is much more likely to be violent and ungovernable in his paroxysms, than one of a more mild and moderate character; while the weak and delicate sometimes fall into an incurable state of imbecility. In an attack of insanity, the moral affections are sometimes materially altered, and the physical and moral strength are frequently much augmented: but the author has had an opportunity of remarking that the unsusceptibility to cold, which has been so often asserted, is by no means universal. In some cases, there seemed to be even a greater than an ordinary susceptibility to the impression of cold; and it always appeared to him particularly necessary to guard against the effects of it at the termination of a paroxysm, when the powers of the system were for the most part extremely reduced. He seems inclined to believe that a paroxysm of insanity is often a salutary operation of nature; and he mentions, as usual precursors, various complaints of the stomach

stomach and bowels, which might make it presumed that those organs were primarily affected in mania. Such symptoms are, however, much less usual here than he represents them to be; and they can scarcely be considered as having a necessary connection with the disease.

In the second section, the writer discusses the moral treatment proper in insanity. He regards it as doing little on this subject to be contented, as the antients were, with laying down general maxims, unless the precise circumstances with respect to the patient were determined, under which those maxims must be applied. He, therefore, deems it better to give examples, in which certain means have been successfully used; with the hope that, from the detail of them, the attentive practitioner may derive some aid. Several curious anecdotes are mentioned in this part of the volume, in illustration of his ideas, and as proofs of the good effects which sometimes arise from powerful means of coercion, from rousing the imagination, from well-timed indulgence, or even from a neat repartee. One of these anecdotes we shall relate:

'A famous watchmaker of Paris, infatuated for a long time with the chimera of perpetual motion, became violently insane, from the overwhelming terror which the storms of the revolution excited. The derangement of his reason was marked with a singular trait. He was persuaded that he had lost his head on the scaffold, and that it was put in a heap with those of many other victims: but that the judges, by a rather too late retraction of their cruel decree, had ordered the heads to be resumed, and to be rejoined to their respective bodies; and he conceived that, by a curious kind of mistake, he had the head of one of his companions placed on his shoulders. He was admitted into the Bicêtre, where he was continually complaining of his misfortune, and lamenting the fine teeth and wholesome breath which he had exchanged for those of very different qualities. In a little time, the hopes of discovering the perpetual motion returned; and he was rather encouraged than restrained in his endeavours to effect his object. When he conceived that he had accomplished it, and was in an extasy of joy, the sudden confusion of a failure removed his inclination even to resume the subject. He was still, however, possessed with the idea that his head was not his own: but from this notion he was diverted by a repartee made to him, when he happened to be defending the possibility of the miracle of St. Dennis, who, it is said, was in the habit of walking with his head between his hands, and in that position continually kissing it. "What a fool you are to believe such a story," it was replied, with a burst of laughter; "How could St. Dennis kiss his head? was it with his heels?" This unanswerable and unexpected retort struck and confounded the madman so much, that it prevented him from saying any thing farther on the subject; he again betook himself to business, and entirely regained his intellects.'

The

The author considers religious mania as the most difficult of any species to dispel; yet he thinks that, by a judicious combination of moral and physical means, a cure may generally be effected. For this purpose, he would place the patient in a country situation, encourage him by little rewards in agricultural labours, favour a taste for philosophical pursuits, and sedulously remove from him every object which could recall his former habits of thought.

Professions are represented as differing materially in the susceptibility which they give to derangement of various kinds. The registers of the Bicêtre afford many examples of madness in priests and monks; in country people misled by a frightful picture of futurity; in painters, sculptors, and musicians; in versifiers, enraptured by their own productions; and in advocates and attornies: but they have not hitherto shewn any instances of men who are in the habitual exercise of their intellectual faculties as naturalists, philosophers, chemists, and much less geometricians.

It is M. PINEL's opinion that coercion should never be used, except when it is absolutely necessary; and that as much liberty as is consistent with the safety of the patient, and of those around him, should always be allowed.

The result of the author's observations in the third section is opposed to the sentiments of those, who refer a diseased affection of mind to an altered state of the organization. In original madness or idiotism, the head is sometimes different from the ordinary shape: but he conceives that it is impossible for any change in its dimensions to occur, after complete ossification, or after the period beyond which derangement generally shews itself. He does not think that any kind of diseased organization of the contents of the head is ever necessarily connected with madness; yet he allows that, in thirty-six dissections which he himself made, he found appearances similar to those that sometimes shew themselves in epilepsy, apoplexy, fevers, convulsions, &c. The subject is a very obscure one: but it is impossible, from the author's own statement of his observations, to admit the extent of his conclusions. It is not by any means proved that the appearances, which he here mentions to have frequently seen, were not connected with the derangement which existed before death. On the other hand, it is highly probable, on comparing them with various other dissections of a similar kind, that they were; though it is impossible, in the present state of our knowlege, to explain, in any satisfactory way, the mode of connection.

In the 4th section, M. PINEL gives his division of mental derangement, into five distinct species, viz. melancholy, or

delirium, restricted to one object; mania without delirium; mania with delirium; madness (*demence*) or abolition of thought; and idiotism. In the first species, there is no disposition to acts of violence, except such as are produced by a predominant and chimerical idea: the delirium is confined to one object, and in other respects there is a free exercise of all the faculties of the understanding.—*Mania without delirium* is described to be continued, or marked by periodical accessions; to be unaccompanied by any alteration in the functions of the understanding, perception, judgment, imagination, or memory: but to be distinguished by a perversion of the affections, a blind impulse to acts of violence, or a sanguinary fury, without the existence of any prevailing idea or illusion of the imagination to account for them.—*Mania with delirium* is marked by a lively nervous excitement, and by the lesion of one or more of the functions of the understanding, with gay or sad, extravagant or furious emotions.—*Madness* (*demence*) is described as consisting in the rapid, or rather alternate and uninterrupted succession of isolated ideas, and light and unsuitable emotions, inordinate movements, and continual acts of extravagance; a total forgetfulness of previous circumstances; an abolition of the faculty of perceiving objects by the impression made on the senses; an annihilation of judgment; a continual activity, without aim or design; and, in short, in a kind of automatical existence.—The specific character of *Idiotism* is the more or less absolute obliteration of the functions of the understanding, and the affections of the heart; sometimes accompanied with revenge, and the uttering of half articulated sounds; at other times, with taciturnity and loss of speech, from the want of ideas.

With regard to the practical utility of this division, (which, it is to be remarked, by no means entirely belongs to the present author,) it may be doubted to what extent it may reach. The distinctions are far from being constant, even in the same individual; nor are the means of cure always dependent on the particular place which may be allotted in nosology to the combination of existing symptoms.

The proportional numbers affected with each species of derangement, in the last enumeration made by the author at the Bicêtre, in 200 persons, were, melancholy 27; maniacal without delirium 15; with delirium 80; mad (*aliénés en demence*) 18; idiotic 60.

The 5th section treats on the internal police and supervision necessary in lunatic hospitals. Here the author strongly recommends a separation of the cases, according to their particular natures, a great degree of regularity in the whole pro-

ceedings of the institution, and a minute attention in the inspector to the particular disposition and circumstances of the patient. Coercion is to be employed when necessary, but beating ought never to be admitted. Communication with their friends should be very cautiously allowed, and generally as a reward for good conduct. Mechanical labour, M. PINEL considers as of extreme utility, because affording a healthy and amusing employment, and one which is therefore very likely to assist in producing a cure.

The 6th and last section relates to the medical treatment of the deranged. To this part of the treatise we were disposed to look with more than usual interest, by a wish to be informed, from careful observation, of the effects of different plans of treatment and remedies, under various circumstances: but we have not received the satisfaction which the author's opportunities and professions intitled us to expect:—the effects of bleeding, purging, emetics, the cold and warm bath, and antispasmodics, do not seem to have occupied much of his attention; at least, in speaking of them, he gives the authorities of others rather than his own. The state of the patient with regard to sleep, and the means of obtaining it, seem to have been entirely overlooked. Since he considers the different species of mental derangement as depending on moral rather than physical causes, he is disposed to trust almost entirely to moral treatment in the cure of them. He deems it generally possible to secure the confidence of the patient, to direct his attention from the particular subjects with which it is engrossed, and to adopt a satisfactory mode of convincing him that his conceptions are ill-founded, or that the circumstances which gave him disquiet have at length ceased to exist. The employment of one passion, to remove or neutralize another, he very properly recommends; and he quotes an instance, from Forestus, of the good effects of this practice, in a rich merchant, who fancied himself reduced to beggary by a little loss in business, but was cured of this idea by the religious zeal with which he was inspired for the catholic religion, at the time of the Reformation.

M. PINEL frequently takes occasion to reprehend the employment of remedies in derangement, without some distinct principles to lead to and direct their use. On this subject it may, however, be observed that, when the nature of a disease is not precisely known, nor the method of removing it unequivocally established, the practitioner is justified in attending to distant analogies in his endeavours to produce a cure. We are yet completely in the dark concerning the nature of mind, and the connection which it has with the body; and we know not

what particular state of the one is necessarily connected with a certain condition of the other. Till this point is ascertained, (and there seems to be at present but very little prospect of settling it,) we can scarcely hope to become acquainted with the treatment of the various modifications of derangement, founded on unerring principles. The particular states of the brain, which have been discovered in maniacs by dissection, afford a satisfactory proof that, whatever may have been the proximate cause of the alienation of reason, the effects of it are not confined to the immaterial parts of the system. The peculiar relation which the local affection bears to the symptoms of the disease, it will of course be extremely difficult to discover; because the opportunity of dissection seldom if ever occurs at a very early period: but, if this point were attained, still the difficulties of practice would by no means be removed.

Art. XIV. *Histoire de la Guerre Civile en France, &c. i. e.* A History of the Civil War in France, and of the Misfortunes which it occasioned; from the Formation of the States General in 1789, to the 18th Brumaire of the Year VIII. (1799): With authentic Details of the Pillage and burning of the Seats of the Nobility; the Troubles of Corsica; those of the Comtat, &c. Including Anecdotes of the principal Personages who took a Part in the Revolution, &c. &c. By the Author of the History of the Reign of Louis XVI. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris, 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s. sewed.

We have more than once had occasion to express our opinion of M. Soulavie*, author of the present publication; the perusal of which has not induced us in any degree to change it. That enmity to the late Royal Family, that medley of censure and praise on the several factions which have successively had the ascendancy in France, that subserviency to the ruling power, those symptoms of bad faith, and those inaccuracies and defects of composition, which marked his former performances, are here equally conspicuous. A collection of the minor events of the revolution, which were not of importance enough to enter into a general history of that event, written by a person less to be suspected, who possessed more discrimination, and sounder judgment, would have been a present which would have been valued by those who undergo the painful task of making themselves acquainted with the transactions of the evil times on which they have been thrown. Even this performance, with all the faults which we have imputed

---

* See Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. &c.

to

to it, and to which we may add, that of abounding in common-place remarks, will be found considerably interesting to those who have noticed the course of the revolution, and will cause them to lament that the ingenuousness, accuracy, and caution of the writer have not been equal to his industry. They will, however, as they proceed in turning over its pages, be conscious of the unpleasant sensation which the mind experiences when it dwells on narratives of doubtful credit: for we conceive that those which form these volumes are worthy of reliance only when corroborated by other testimony, when supported by internal evidence, or where there seems to be no temptation to misrepresent or to indulge in fiction.

Those who have studied the convulsions which have agitated France will be able to call to mind the troubles at Nancy. The present author accuses the Marquis *de Bouille* of acting in that affair on a plan of deeply laid and widely extended treachery; viz. that of leading the national guards to be butchered, and of obtaining a fresh regular force to be placed under his command by the national assembly; with which, on the reduction of Nancy, he designed to march against Paris, and dissolve that very assembly which had reposed its confidence in him. We suspect that M. SOULAVIE learnt all this from the same source which revealed to him so many secrets relating to the courts of the two last reigning monarchs of France. He is also the defender of the recall of the Swiss regiment of Chateau-vieux, and of the indecent scenes which accompanied it. The respectable *Gouvion* protested in the legislative assembly against the honours paid to this mutinous corps; he stated that his brother had been slaughtered in attempting to quell its insurrection; and when his remonstrances were disregarded, he refused to remain any longer a member of that body. The conduct of this esteemed person will have greater weight with most readers in determining the real merits of this transaction, than the loose pages of the present writer. We have never before seen this recall represented in any other light, than as an act of hostility against the court. It was one of the first of that series of anarchical measures, which the weak Girondists, instigated by the creatures of *Robespierre*, introduced at first with the view of terrifying, and at length of subverting the throne, and which ultimately proved not less fatal to themselves. In some of the narratives, we find this Proteus author a high monarchist, and in others an austere Romanist; in that of the affair of Nancy, we recognize the Jacobin Envoy at Geneva, under the committee of public safety.

Numbers of the anecdotes here related prove, that many of the partizans of the antient regime were actuated by a temper and disposition not less ferocious and sanguinary than those which excited its opponents to such unparalleled excesses. Displays of them were to be seen on each side, sufficient to prepare the mind for much of the horror which attended the struggle as it advanced; and which illustrate the nature and consequences of sudden and violent revolutions. In the early stages of the troubles, the popular party sometimes shewed much patience and forbearance, but much oftener ran into the most disgusting excesses. The populace never rose without shedding blood and *parading heads*. This ferocity was not confined to the capital and large cities, but took place even in small towns and villages; and this thirst for blood appears to be a dreadful feature in the French national character.

It rests on better authority than that of M. SOULAVIE, that the court, which had called together the Tiers-Etât, studied to pass a number of vexatious though slight insults on that body, as it were on purpose to irritate it. This body, with its president at its head, was frequently made to wait long in the anti-chambers, before it was introduced to the king. A package of books directed to the Tiers-Etât was detained, while one addressed to the Noblesse, and another to the Duke of Orleans, were suffered to pass. The court assumed to itself a controul in deciding who should and who should not attend its sittings. One day a proclamation by the heralds at arms informed it, that the king would make use of its hall for the purpose of holding a royal sitting; when its members were refused admittance into it, under the plea that workmen were engaged in making alterations in it for the reception of the king: which led to the celebrated meeting at the Tennis Court, where was taken the memorable oath which caused the revolution. On the day of the royal sitting, all the apparatus of arbitrary power was displayed; all the avenues to the hall were barricadoed, and lined with troops. The guards were mounted, and placed in battle array, with naked swords. In the space of an eighth of a league, there were four thousand armed men; numerous patroles were continually taking their rounds to prevent any groupes being formed; and they even went so far as to separate the deputies who walked to the hall in parties. As the clock struck nine, the deputies presented themselves; the privileged orders had been admitted at the great door, while the commons entered by a small door on the opposite side; owing to the narrowness of which, many were crowded most unpleasantly in the vestibule, and great numbers

numbers were kept out, exposed to the rain for nearly an hour. Who can wonder at the disasters that befell a country under a government which assembled the representatives of the nation to beg favours of them, and which treated them at their meeting in this rude and harsh way? It is true that this ill-usage is not of a violent nature, but it is not on that account less felt, nor was it less fraught with ill consequences to its authors. All parts of the hall, except those occupied by the court and the states, were filled with soldiers; and the king was advised to make use of very arbitrary language on the occasion. He broke up the meeting, and commanded each of the orders to disperse, and not to assemble till the morrow. The commons, having been irritated, dared to disobey the royal mandate; and the ministers, afraid of the people of Paris, chose not to enforce compliance by violence, and thus compromised the royal authority.

If the court was ill-advised in its proceedings towards the assemblies, the latter were guilty of sins far more heinous and pernicious against the nation: since they sacrificed the interests of the public to promote their own, and to indulge in mutual hatred. The constituent assembly was divided into the right and left sides; the former occupied by the partizans of the old order of things, and the latter by the revolutionists. These designations took their rise from the places in the hall with regard to the president's seat, severally filled by the parties. Their enemies termed the popular laws the *Breton decrees*, and stigmatized the deputies of the same side as *enragés* and *incendiaries*. These denominated themselves the *friends of the people*, or the impartial, and designated their enemies as *aristocrats*, the *green faction*, green being the livery of the Comte *d'Artois*; also the *blacks*, there being many clergy of the party; and by way of contrast, they called themselves *whites*, and those who fluctuated between both, *greys*. As coarseness and vulgarity prevailed more in the convention, that assembly had besides its Girondists, federalists, &c. &c. its *mountain*, its *plain*, and its *marsh*; its *enragés*, its *modérés*, and its *toads*.

An address read to the constituent assembly happening to contain some expressions displeasing to the royalist deputies, numbers of them rushed to the tribune, and one held his fist up to the orator's face. The Duke *de la Rochefoucauld* appearing one day in the tribune in order to speak, the Abbé *Maury* pushed him down from it by the neck and shoulders. Sometimes three or four together would seize the tribune, and harangue at the same time. There were five epochs in the constituent assembly, distinguished by disgraceful scenes; viz. the discussions respecting the freedom of worship; the state

of the colonies; the affair of Avignon, that of Corsica, and the question of the *Veto*.

The author descends to the very minutiæ of the history of the royal family, while confined in the Temple; and the relation, we have no doubt, is in the main authentic. The behaviour of the king is throughout dignified. He stands on elevated ground, displays all the courage and resignation of a confessor, all the equanimity of a philosopher, and the gentle and easy manners of the polished Courtier. Until his barbarous enemies tore from him those who were most dear to him, he divided his time between the exercises of religion, reading, the instruction of his son, innocent games, and converse with his family. Towards the end of November, he applied to the Council of the Commune for the following books for his own use, and that of his son:—*Append. de Diis; A Patre Juvenco; Aurelius Victor; Cæsaris Commentaria; Cornelius Nepos; Dictionarium Universale; Eutropius;* the Fables of *Fontaine*, with plates; *Florus; Thomond*'s Latin Grammar; *Vailly*'s Grammar; *Gautruche*'s Art of Poetry; *Horatius; Quadraginta viri*, &c.; *Justinus; Burette*'s Ovid's Metamorphoses; *Phædrus*'s Fables; *Quintus Curtius;* Remarks on the French Language by *Olivet; Sallustius; Suetonius*, ed. Elz.; *Tacitus; Telemachus; Terentius; Titus Livius; Rollin* on Study; *Mesengui*'s Lives of the Saints; *Velleius Paterculus; Virgilius;* and the same with notes, and translated into French by *Burette*. The price, the editions, and the form of each book were set down. The proposal met with objections in the council; one said that Louis's time to live would not be long enough to read all these books; others remarked that many of the books inculcated erroneous political principles, and that some of them (such as Ovid) were immoral, while *Paterculus* contained schemes of a counter-revolution. It was observed at the time that, had *Ovid* been at this notable discussion, he might have exclaimed,

"*Barbarus hic ego sum, quia non intelligor ulli.*"

While in prison, the king appeared as if seized by an extraordinary passion for study. He calculated on the evening preceding his death, that in little more than five months he had read 257 volumes. He preferred at this time Latin to French authors; and he never went to rest without having first read a portion of *Tacitus, Livy, Seneca, Horace, Virgil*, or *Terence*. The French works which he principally read were travels.

As the Duke *de la Rochefoucauld* was known to several persons of distinction in this country, and as the account here given of his unhappy fate is the only detailed one which has

occurred to us, we shall insert the substance of it.—Speaking of the massacres of September, the author says:

'At this time, and by the hands of the same assassins, perished the estimable *Rochefoucauld*, late a duke and peer of France, ex-constituent, and ex president of the department of Paris, president of the Academy of Forty, whose eloquence in the tribune had been so often luminous, and so often useful. The commune of Paris had issued an order to arrest him as early as the 16th of August: but, being apprized of it, he concealed himself in a sequestered part of one of his estates. Believing the storm to have blown over, he had the imprudence to join his family at Forges, in the department of the lower Seine: of which being informed, the municipality of Paris, usurping a jurisdiction over all the departments, on the 28th of August sent an order to one *Bouvard*, an inhabitant of Vernon, to arrest him. *Bouvard* did not execute it till the 2d of September, and on the next day obliged the duke and his family to quit their habitation, under the pretence of conducting them to Gournai. This man's mode of proceeding made it evident, that he had instructions to contrive that his illustrious prisoner should be massacred. When he had conducted his charge as far as Gisors, the populace of that place, and a battalion which happened to be there, demanded loudly that M. *de la Rochefoucauld* should be shewn to them. The result but too clearly proves what their object was in this request. *Bouvard*, without waiting for the crowd to disperse, gave directions for departure, in order as he said that they might reach Vernon: but they had scarcely set out when he desired M. *de la Rochefoucauld* to quit the carriage, and to walk before the horses. He had taken only a few steps, when he received blows from swords and pikes which deprived him of existence, in the presence of his affectionate wife and venerable mother. This scene took place while the constituted authorities of Gisors, the national guard of that place, a detachment of the gendarmerie of the department, and another of that of Paris, were looking on. When the latter were reproached with not having protected him, they replied: "It was necessary that he should perish: it was sufficient that his family did not share his fate."

This tragedy took place on the 4th of September 1792, in the afternoon.

'So exemplary had been the life of this excellent man, that the breath of calumny never dared to attack his private character. All who knew him agree that there did not live a man of more firm integrity, and of more pure intentions. He shared, however, in the fatal mistakes committed by the popular party of the constituent assembly; and though his errors, and those of the many persons of worth who acted with him, were undoubtedly errors of the judgment, wholly involuntary, yet to what dreadful consequences did they lead! and how tragically were they expiated by those who fell into them! Mankind in future will need no new lessons, to teach them to pause before they venture on political changes. If M. *de la Rochefoucauld* attacked too vehemently the antient regime, he was a zealous, steady, and

and undaunted supporter of the constitutional throne. Though he never frequented the court in the days of its prosperity, he was often seen with the king when his situation became perilous. No doubt he perceived his error when it was too late, and did all that he could to repair it. He it was who advised the measure of *Lafayette*'s addressing the legislative assembly: which did harm, but which was well meant. As president of the department, he suspended *Petion* from being mayor, for the neglect of his duty in not protecting the royal family and the palace from the mob on the 20th of June. In his reply to the circular letter of *Roland* when Minister, he clearly pointed out the ill effects of the persecution for religion which the government had then just commenced, and denounced the parent society of the Jacobins. He forcibly dwelt on the evils arising from the lawless proceedings and the usurpations of that body. A power so mighty, subject to no responsibility, bidding defiance to government, and braving the laws, had (he observed) nothing that resembled it in the history of any state. These were offences sufficient to induce Jacobin vengeance to lay waste whole provinces. It dared not to bring to trial this virtuous man, but had recourse to the dastardly mode of assassination, by means of obscure and irresponsible instruments.'

The author enters into a minute detail of the treatment of *La Fayette* and that of his two friends, as well as that of the Commissaries of the Convention betrayed by *Dumouries*, while confined in the prisons of Austria. The particulars are highly curious, and will remain an everlasting reproach to the advisers of Francis II. With his usual want of accuracy, M. SOULAVIE compliments England with having exerted its good offices at the court of Vienna, in favour of the interesting prisoners at Olmutz: whereas the British cabinet of that day stood so much on etiquette, were so tremblingly alive to a sense of the independence of other governments, and so averse to officious interference in the concerns of other states, that the voice of humanity, the claims of justice, and the reputation of the coalition, could not induce them to instruct their minister at the Imperial court to drop the least hint in favour of the unhappy persons who were languishing in its loathsome dungeons.

We could add many more interesting extracts from these volumes, but we refrain because we are not satisfied of their correctness. The work certainly has no pretensions to be denominated a history. It is a mere collection of narratives of the horrors and extraordinary events of the revolution, in which no method is observed; and it abounds in the most inexcusable inaccuracies. The reflections are all either dull or puerile, or perverse; and some of them are of such a nature as must call forth the indignation of every upright mind, and place the character of the author in the most unfavourable light.

ART.

ART. XV. *Medecine expectante; i. e.* Expectant Medicine. By C. VITET, Professor of Medicine. 6 Vols 8vo. pp about 600 in each. Lyons, 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 5s. sewed.

OUR readers may feel some difficulty in understanding the precise meaning of the title of this publication, from there being no term in the medical language of this country which corresponds with the word *expectante*.—This expression is meant to be understood in opposition to *agissante*, and is thus connected with certain ideas on the mode of conducting the treatment of diseases, which principally consist in the supposition that they are salutary efforts of nature, which it is improper (except in particular cases) to interrupt. The explanation of the terms *expectante* and *agissante* is only incidentally given by the author, in his introduction to the chapter on Fevers: but, though he seems to consider them as of sufficient notoriety among French practitioners, it may not be superfluous, for the sake of our brethren in England, to annex a few of the explanatory observations which occur in this part of his work, and which apply in a greater or less degree to every part of his system. Fever he describes as originating from a certain morbific matter, to the concoction and expulsion of which the efforts of nature are spontaneously directed, and thus a certain train of symptoms is produced. These efforts should be the constant objects of attention, since their nature and force must determine how far we are to attempt any thing towards a cure of the disease by medicine, and what the particular objects are which we must keep in view, if we deem it necessary to employ it. In this conduct, we are informed, *expectant medicine* consists; the more particular objects of which are,

'To wait on and obey nature, as long as her efforts are neither too violent nor too weak for the concoction and expulsion of the febrile matter, and as long as they do not wander from their proper routes; to observe attentively, from the attack of fever to convalescence, all the movements of nature, which tend to disturb the concoction and crisis; to combat these efforts by means incapable of annoying the concoction and crisis; to destroy the obstacles which oppress her efforts, without producing any injurious changes; to restore nature to her proper direction, that she may pursue her operations without endangering the concoction or crisis; not to wait till the last days of the fever, to prevent the injurious effects of the wanderings, or immoderate or ineffectual efforts of nature: but in consequence to put every thing in practice in order properly to dispose the efforts and the direction of nature, rather during the growth of fever, that in its vigour and declension; to attend particularly to the distinction of the signs, which announce and confirm the concoction, the critical day, and the kind of crisis, for the purpose of preserving the most perfect repose, during

during the time when the efforts of nature are sufficient; to guard against the acceleration of the concoction and crisis before the time required by nature; nor to leave to her the care of surmounting the fever, while art knows a specific for it, but to be contented with chusing the favourable moment for applying it with success; to turn away with force and activity the fatal efforts of nature, and rather to try a doubtful remedy, while there remains a faint hope of effecting a cure, than abandon the patient to inevitable death. *Expectant medicine*, then, does not consist in committing this fever entirely to nature; in observing and contemplating her efforts, however injurious they may be to the present and the future; in abstaining absolutely from the use of all relief, and in not disturbing her wanderings, however imminent the dangers may be which present themselves. *Expectant medecine*, thus considered, would often become as injurious to humanity as the empiricism decorated by certain practitioners with the name of active medicine (*medecine agissante*). This empiricism, which is always in opposition to expectant medicine, does not wish to acknowlege nature; it has no inclination to limit, to obey, or to follow her; it affects to act of itself alone, and attributes to the power of remedies all the cures which nature performs; it does not recognize the efforts which she often makes, to get rid both of the medicine which has been employed, and of the morbific matter, when the latter has arrived at its last degree of concoction. It regards as chimerical the divisions of fevers, the symptoms which distinguish them, the phænomena which announce and characterise every species of crisis; it does not admit the existence of days indicative of a crisis, of days at which the concoction is completed, or of days actually critical; and in course it disdains to foresee a critical nasal hæmorrhage, a critical excretion by the nose, a critical expectoration, a critical pituitous spitting, a critical sweat, critical evacuations by stool or urine, and critical depositions. It does not listen to the action of the mind on the body, nor of the body on the mind; and therefore it acts at every time, and in every circumstance, without attending to the obstacles which nature, and a simple or complicated fever may present.—We must not be surprized, then, that it absolutely mistakes the signs which announce the different species of crisis; while *expectant medicine* particularly attends to deriving those appearances from the state of the mind, the senses, the eyes, the countenance, the tongue, the integuments, the various excretions, the respiration, and the pulse.'

From this abstract, an idea may be formed of the two kinds of practice described in this work; and of the mode of reasoning on one of the most important classes of diseases, which the author employs to exemplify them. Such a mode has long been obsolete in this country, and has yielded to a judicious combination of the principles of the *medecine expectante* and *agissante*; which, while it does not refuse to nature those pretensions to which she justly has a claim, is far from supporting such as are hypothetical or ill founded, and which are connected

nected with speculative ideas on the nature of diseases.—The succeeding parts of the introductory chapter on Fever, from which we have made the above extracts, give an exemplification of the circumstances which are to direct the prognosis in fever. The respiration and the pulse are particularly watched for this purpose: but the very numerous divisions, and consequently minute distinctions, which are here made, would tend to bewilder rather than assist the practitioner in his judgment. The pulse of irritation, concoction, and crisis, are the three leading divisions from which the others are made; and of these the last obtains the greatest share of attention. The critical pulse is supposed to precede and announce critical evacuations. It is divided into the superior or regular, which indicates depositions above the diaphragm; and the inferior or irregular, marking those which take place below that organ. The former is subdivided into the nasal, guttural, and pectoral pulse, according as the deposition is to take place on any of the organs from which those terms are derived; and the latter, for the same reason, into the stomachic, bilious, intestinal, urinary, hæmorrhoidal, and uterine. It might be said, with much appearance of truth, that, in the adoption of this subtile division, the author was little directed by practical experience: but it must be remarked that he does not appear altogether to sanction it, as he admits that the distinctions laid down would often be insufficient to form a well-founded prognosis.

The very great extent of this work necessarily precludes the practicability of giving more than a general notice concerning its contents. It bears the marks of considerable industry, and shews the author to be possessed of an accurate acquaintance with the symptomotology of diseases, and the divisions into which they have been arranged in different systems of nosology. If we form an idea of his method of practice from the principles laid down by him, we should expect it to be in general timid and inert; and therefore we are not disappointed to find that he disapproves many of those active medicines, which the experience of physicians of this country has taught them to employ with advantage. In his treatment, however, of many of the diseases which we have had occasion to consider in these volumes, he avails himself of the principal means which the most judicious practitioners have found it expedient to recommend. The particular attention which the author thinks it proper to give to the species of diseases, individually, introduces much repetition, and a prolixity which it would have been better to have avoided. In examining those species, he first enumerates their symptoms, then the habits most disposed to them, and afterward their remote causes, and method of cure. The whole system of diseases

diseases is divided into the eight following classes, which he treats in order, viz. Febrile diseases; inflammatory; painful; and convulsive; diseases of debility; diseases accompanied with evacuations of any kind; such as are attended with retentions; and diseases of the mind.

No specific references are given for peculiar symptoms, nor for the success attending certain modes of practice: but with the title of each genus or species, are inserted useful references to the most respectable authors who have treated on them. M. VITET seems in general to give his ideas on the nature and cure of diseases in a dogmatical form, without adverting to his own particular experience or observation. This in course makes it difficult to distinguish how far he speaks from a personal knowlege of the subject, or from the information which he has derived from the writings of others; and therefore we have little opportunity of forming a comparative judgment respecting the efficacy of different modes of practice. The experience of thirty years which he boasts of having devoted, with Citizens *Gilibert* and *Petetin*, to the cultivation of *medecine expectante*, is stated to have confirmed him, more and more, in the efficacy attending the system which he has pursued in his treatment of diseases. So long and unwearied an attention to the interests of his profession is highly creditable, and would perhaps convey to the English practitioner the idea of having been pursued with more judgment and success, if the author did not so often shew himself decidedly averse to many vigorous but efficacious modes of practice, which he knows (or at least suspects) that his opponents, the *medecins agissants*, would have been *guilty* of employing.

The last volume contains a methodical exposition, by the author and his son, of the character, virtues, preparation, and administration, of those medicines which are employed for the most part by the *active*, but very little by the *expectant* Physician; together with the diseases in which they are indicated.

ART. XVI. *Cours de Physique celeste*, &c.; *i. e.* Course of Celestial Physics, or Lessons on the Exposition of the System of the World, read at the Polytechnic School, in the Year 10. By J. H. HASSENFRATZ. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

THE nature of this work is elementary, being specially designed for the use of the students of the Polytechnic school, and calculated to be useful to all students in astronomy, as preparatory to the arduous undertaking of reading the profound treatises of *Laplace* on the Exposition of the System of the World,

World, and on Celestial Mechanics. The plan is commendable; since, of the few who have read, or pretended to have read, those publications, none perhaps will deny that they require matter both preparatory and explanatory. M. LAPLACE has also omitted all figures and diagrams: he might, perhaps, regard plates as mere luxuries: but to Englishmen they are absolute necessaries; and indeed the astronomical tyros of his own country cannot dispense with them: a fact which M. HASSENFRATZ acknowleges, and alleges as one of the reasons for the appearance of his volume.

The author has here introduced 29 plates; and if what we have heard concerning the neglect in France of the Greek and Latin languages be true, he has not less consulted the wants of his students, by subjoining, in the form of notes, those Greek words (and their translation) from which most of the terms in Astronomy are taken.

Of a publication like the present, we must be contented to give a general character, since we cannot enter into a particular examination of it: though we could extract many instances of clear reasonings and of ingenious and happy explanation: but when we say that the author has perspicuously treated a difficult subject in its arrangements and illustrations, we give him that sort of commendation to which alone he can be properly intitled, and ought reasonably to expect. If, however, the substance and materials of his composition were before him in great abundance, he must be allowed to have neatly and dexterously disposed and connected them.

M. HASSENFRATZ wished to elucidate, and to render more intelligible, *Laplace's* Exposition of the System of the World. By wealth drawn from that treatise, he has enriched his own: he has borrowed light from that which he wished to illuminate; and, which is no inconsiderable recommendation, the present course was submitted (as we are informed in the preface) to the inspection and correcting judgment of that great mathematician.

This volume treats on both plane and physical Astronomy: it contains the explanation of the ordinary phænomena of the heavens, with the causes of phænomena from the theory of Gravitation, and the results of calculation: but it does not enter very deeply into these matters, because the size of the book is small, and its object was limited to the instruction of students in the Elements of Astronomy. We have to regret that it is not better printed, and is not more free from typographical errors.

ART.

ART. XVII. *Renseignemens sur les Evènemens*, &c.; *i. e.* Information concerning the Events which took place in Swisserland, in September and October 1802. 12mo. Pamphlet. De Boffe.

WE have here a circumstantial account of the attempt made by the brave Swiss, to overturn the domination of an odious faction. While success every where crowned the efforts of patriotism, the mandate of a foreign power and the invasion of its hordes, paralyzed the undertaking, and riveted the chains of the brave descendants of William Tell. This intrepid people, seeing that resistance was vain,—there being no proportion between the forces who were to decide the dispute,—wisely and humanely abstained from useless bloodshed; and the diet of Schwitz disbanded its forces, and dissolved itself, protesting solemnly against the violence offered to an independent nation, and referring its rights to God and posterity.

All the promises made by the agents of the invading power, we are told, remain unfulfilled. The Helvetic government, says the writer, has indeed resumed its functions, but it has undergone no purification, and the most detested individuals continue to share in it. The deputies appointed by each state have been refused admittance into the consulta, while this consulta is composed of a swarm of Jacobins and traitors: though their opinion was not likely to be much regarded in framing the subsequent constitution, dictated by the First Consul. We are, he continues, replunged in the abyss from which we were about to have delivered ourselves; and new calamities await unfortunate Swisserland, until the time shall arrive, when favourable circumstances may permit us to resume our imprescriptible rights.

Will the warfare, which this country has now, alas! recommenced, produce any relief to these deserving but oppressed mountaineers?

INDEX

INDEX

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N. B. *To find any particular* Book, *or* Pamphlet, *see the* Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

A, Explication of that vowel, Page 473.
Adrian, Emperor, his high character not duly appreciated, 452.
Agriculture, schemes for its improvement, 383.
America, false judgment of that country in its conduct during the late war, 307.
Amiens, treaty of, observations on, 382.
Ancram, Lord, on the arms of Light Cavalry, 305.
And-passy-and, or &, eulogy on the beauty of that character, 471.
Animals, their destruction of one another argumentatively justified, 270.
Annan Water, an old ballad, 27.
Arch, in building, conjecture on the date of its invention, 374.
——, singular reflection on it, as connected with the æra of its introduction, *ib.*
Army, French, in Egypt, total loss of, to the year 1800, 493. Said to have been more healthy than the European armies, *ib.*
Arts and sciences, the causes of their superior encouragement in Italy, 50.
Assembly, constituent, of France, denominations of its different parties, 535.
Asses, their skill in descending the precipices of the Alps, 184.

B

Baltimore, in America, particulars respecting, 78.
Bears of Kamtschatka, particulars relative to, 182.
Begging. See *Mendicity*.
Berne, its valour in battle and moderation in victory, 457. Its policy, 458.
Black, Dr. particulars of his life, 188.
Blende, description of, 468.
Blind-man restored to sight, interesting story of, 87.
Blizzard, Mr. on an extra uterine fœtus, 299.
Blockade of the Elbe and Weser disapproved, 393.
Bombardier, particulars of that insect, 185.
Bonaparte, his first appearance, at the siege of Toulon, 283.
——, observations on his situation as Chief Consul, 311.
Bouille, Marquis de, accused of treachery at Nancy, 533.
Bruant, Dr. account of Ophthalmia, 494.

Brunswick, Duke of, effects of his manifesto, 278.
Burying in churches, melancholy effects of, 144.

C

Calamines, chemical analysis of, 397.
Camp, Roman, area of, 372.
Carthage and England, the parallel between them not exact, 442.
Catechu, experiments on, 410.
Cavalry, Light, improvements in their arms, 305.
Ceylon, inhabitants of, account of, 124.
Chenevix, Mr. on the humours of the eye, 399.
Cherson, account of, 226.
Clergy of Tweeddale, in Scotland, provision for, 71.
—— of England characterized by a foreigner, 508.
Coals, prejudicial effects of the excise regulations respecting, when carried coast-wise, 61.
Cockburn, Mrs. of Ormiston, interesting notice of, 25.
Cod-fishery, new method of taking the fish recommended, 62.
Cologne, various notices of, 152.
Columbo, particulars respecting, 121, 122.
Corn, an article which cannot be monopolized, 518.
Cottage of the Scotch peasant described, 69.
Couching, interesting story of a young man restored to sight by that operation, 87.
Crimea, geographical sketch of, 228.
Cuvijus, genus of, 376.
Currie, Dr. his anecdote of a traveller drowned in the Frith of Solway, 27.

D

Danger, impressions of, on different people on board of a man of war, 36.
Daniel, Samuel, sonnet by, 155.
Davy, Mr. on the constituent parts of astringent vegetables, and on their operation in tanning, 408.
Deluge, not fatal to all men and animals, 361.
Doeg, Dr. epitaph on, 101.
Domingo, St. collusion said to prevail there between the French commanders and the Blacks, 482.
Dramatic exhibitions, their propriety discussed by a *vulgo-dicto* Quaker, 34.
Dromedary corps formed by the French in Egypt, description of, 195.

E

Earth, formation of, comparison of different systems relative to, 285—295.
England, description of, by a foreigner, 502.
English, as a nation, general character of, by a French writer, 510.
Erbach, monks of, their luxury and gluttony, 149.
Eye, its wonderful structure an evidence of the Divine Creator, 265.
——, obs. on the humours of, 399.

F

Facetia, of Poggio Bracciolini, account of that work, 53.

Festiniog, vale of, an evening in, poetically described, 158.
Fever, remarks on the treatment of, 541.
Fish, great importance of a large supply of that article of food in this country, 54.
Fishery of Scotland, recommendations for extending, 56.
Fisheries, their extension and improvement recommended, 384. *et seq.*
Fœtus, extra-uterine, description of, 299.
Formula, algebraic. See *Wallace*.
Foundling Hospitals at Petersburg and Moscow, account of, 347.
Fox, George, compared with Mahomet, 38.
France, its political state under the old government, 276.
——— and Russia, their situations and interests compared, 309.
———, its population rather increased than diminished during the revolution, 352.
Francfort, its convents for female nobility, 144.
Franklin, Dr. account of a visit to, 89.
Franks, origin of that nation, 452.
Fray of Suport, an antient ballad, 29.
Fucus siliquosus, described, 17.
——— *Fascia*, account of, 19.

G

Galls, infusions of, experiments on, 409.
Gases, absorption of by water, experiments on, 398. 413.
Gold, experiments on the various alloys of, 400.
Gossamer, remarks on, 185.
Greville, Mr. his account of some stones, &c. *said* to have fallen from the clouds on the earth, 406.
Grondel, General, some account of, 480.
Gunpowder, verses on, by N. Bloomfield, 379.

H

Hake. See *Cod*.
Hanover, the invasion of by Bonaparte undertaken with the view of making it the seat of war, 394.
Hatchett, Mr. on the alloys, gravity, and comparative wear of gold, 400.
Heavens, on the meaning and use of that word, 359.
Helvetia, history of, 450—463.
Hemp, substitute for, discovered in New South Wales, 4.
Henry, Mr. on the quantity of gases absorbed by water, 398. 413.
Hernia, crural, directions for cutting for that disease, 214.
Herschell, Dr. on the transit of Mercury, 397.
Home, Mr. on the structure of the tongue, 407.
Honey bird, curious instinct of, 251.
Horace, two of his odes translated, 128, 129.
Hour glass, verses to, 215.

I and J

Ichneumon, Indian, its wonderful sagacity, 250.
Jerome of Prague, account of his trial and execution, 46.
Inclosing, remarks on, 71.
Industry, apostrophe to, 327.
Insanity, various remarks relative to, 526. *et seq.* Case of, cured by a repartee, 528.
Insurance against fire, good plan of, 146.
Invasion, lucubrations on, 388. *et seq.*

Ivory, Mr. his solution of Kepler's problem, 300.

K

Kennedy, Dr. on an uncommon species of zeolite, 299.
Kepler's problem, solution of, 300.

L

Labyrinth-Fret, from its extreme antiquity, attributed to the taste of our original mother, and called Eve's pattern, 373.
Landaff, Bishop of, the subject of one of his theses when he was a soph at Cambridge, 442.
Language, English, supposed to have been principally formed in the 13th century, 156.
Laplace, M. the study of his works facilitated by an introductory publication, 543.
Laura, the question whether she was married fully discussed, 297.
Legion, Roman, component parts of, 367.
Leopold of Austria, his attack on the Swiss confederates, and defeat at the memorable battle of Morgarten, 455, 456. His defeat and death under the walls of Sempach, 461, 462.
Lofft, Mr. his account of the poetry of Nathaniel Bloomfield, 378.
London, the plan of erecting military works around it reprobated, 392.
——— described by a foreigner, 503.
Louis XIV. of France, his high character, 488. Dignity of his gallantries, 489
Louis XVI. firmness of his behaviour in adversity, 536. List of books requested by him for his own use and that of his son, *ib.*

M

Madness, the professions most productive of it, and the reverse, 529. Arrangement of different species, 530.
Magalhaens, the glory of first penetrating from the Atlantic to the South Sea, proved to belong to him against the claim of Behaim, 417. His track across the South Sea investigated, 419. His death and character, 420. 422.
Mahomet and George Fox compared, 38.
Malta, its importance to England represented, 196. 322.
Mammalia, genus of, 375.
Man, Isle of, account of, 58.
Marriages, the causes which diminish the number in England, 350.
Mastiff, extraordinary memory of one, 182.
Medicine, *expectant*, meaning of that term, 539. Distinguished from *active Medicine*, 540.
Men, not universally descended from Adam, but different breeds of them, as of horses and dogs, 359.
Mendicity, valuable remarks on, 108.
Mercury, observations on the transit of, 397.
Meteorological abstract, 300.
Midwifery, professor of, epitaph on, 101.
Monas, genus of, 377.
Money, disquisition respecting, 521.
Monks of Erbach, their luxury, 149.
Montesquieu, his idea of the causes of the excessive population which supplied the various hordes

hordes that overran the Roman empire, and of the excessive population of China, treated as conceits, 343.
——— the source of many brilliant errors in political economy, 515.
Moon, verses to, 155.
Morality, an attempt to involve it in mystery, 446.
Morocco leather, antient manufactory of, in the Taurida, 237. Process of, *ib.*
Mourning Maid, a poem, 176.
Mouth, its admirable structure urged as an argument in Natural Theology, 267.

N

Nicolayef, society at, 239.
Nile, excursion up that river depicted, 193. 198.
Norway, the only country which is sensible of the ill effects of redundant population, 345.
Norwegian Hunter, a poem, 161.

O

Oran Otan, ludicrous anecdote of, 181.
Orestes, a tragedy, specimen of, 413.
Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus, farther particulars of, 5.
Ophthalmia, account of, 494.
Ossian, the originality of his poems discussed, 134.
Oxen, the advantages of using them as beasts of labour calculated, 172.

P

Patience, that virtue inculcated, 167.
Pearl fishery at Ceylon, described, 117.
Petrarch and Laura, observations on their memoirs, 296.
Pittoresco, Senior, the modern *landscape gardener*, his visit to Meldrum Hall, 137.
Plague introduced into the French Military Hospitals in Egypt, 492. Undoubtedly contagious, *ib.* Evidence of its occuring twice in the same subject, *ib.*
Playfair, Mr. his meteorological abstract, 300.
Polybius, new translation of a passage in that author respecting the Prætorium of a Roman Camp, 370.
Population, necessarily limited by the means of subsistence, 339. Checks of, *preventive* and *positive*, *ib.* Subject pursued at much length, *ib.*—357.
Ports, the impotency and impolicy of the attempt to shut those of Europe against the British flag, 392.
Preservation Island, in New South Wales, account of, 8.
Priests and Priestcraft in Ceylon, account of, 243.
Printing, Mr. Tresham's lines celebrating the advantages of this discovery, 444.
Promises, remarks on, 257.
Property, literary, opinion respecting, by a French economist, 523.
Pyrrha, Horace's ode to, translated, 128.

Q

Quakers, censured for adopting dangerous modes of defence of their property, 39. Two female Quakers imprisoned by

by the Ecclesiastical Court, 40.
Quakers, some of them *too much Quakers* for the general mass, 336.
Quartz, description of, 465.
Quesnay, Dr. his school of Economists, 516.

R

Rattlesnake, the virulence of its poison exemplified, 184.
Raynal, Abbé, his account of the antient state of the British isles, 341.
Reding, Aloys, the Swiss Hero, some account of, 431.
Red Sea, notices of, 198.
Refraction, horizontal, observations on, 394.
Retired life, utility of, represented, 84.
Richardson, the novelist, highly praised by a French writer, 478.
Richborough, observations on this Roman Castrum, 366.
Riches, superabundant, their inutility strikingly exemplified in an anecdote of the great Dr. Franklin, 90.
Riflemen, instructions for forming a corps of, 80.
Rochefoucauld, Duke de la, his barefaced assassination, 537. His excellent character, *ib.*
Rodolph, Emperor, his character, 453.
Rosy Hannah, a song, 216.
Russia compared with France. See *France*.

S

Sade, Abbé de, observations on his life of Petrarch, 296.
Saint Gotar, in Germany, its luxurious customs, 150.
Salt-duties highly unfavourable to the herring fishery, exemplified, 57.
Salt recommended to be used in feeding sheep, 172.
Schaurmann, Anna Maria, a young prodigy, 153.
Scotland, view of, by a foreigner, 506.
Septuagint, its readings different in many places from those of the Hebrew text, 358.
Seven, that number represented to have a decided preference in all the departments of nature, 362.
Sheep, experiments on the different breeds of, 170.
Sloth, the cry of that animal not horrible but plaintive, 180. Capable of shedding tears, *ib.*
Smith, Dr. his *Wealth of Nations* highly praised, and its defects pointed out, 514. The basis of a new French work, *ib.* Characterized by that French writer, 516.
Smithson, Mr. his chemical analysis of some calamines, 397.
Song of the Faries, 432.
South Sea, origin of that name, 417.
Spallanzani, M. his literary labours, 497. His character, 498.
Spirituous liquors the occasion of depopulation among the Indian tribes, 340.
Squirrel-hunting, account of, 79. This animal said to be excellent food, 80.
Statesman, reflections on the character of, 83.
Stones, and a lump of iron, *said* to have fallen from the skies, account of, 406.

Subscription, the obligation of, considered, 258.
Suckling, the mischiefs and the expedience of, discussed, 495.
Suez, account of, 198.
Sunday scene, curious, in America, 90.
Swans, black, very numerous in New South Wales, 12.
Swinging for their cast, in Ceylon, that penance described, 120.
Swiss, their state for the last century and half, 425. Their spirited behaviour on the base attempts of the French to invade their liberties, 427. *et seq.*
——, their hard fate lamented, 544.

T

Tanning, experiments on, 408.
Tell, William, chapel of, described, 455.
Thaliarchus, Horace's ode to, translated, 129.
Θυσιαστηριον, explanation of the meaning of this word in Rev. xxi. there erroneously translated, *Foundations*, 367.
Tissenet, M. his stratagem to escape being scalped, 481.
Tongue, observations on the structure of, 407. A portion of it may be safely removed by ligature, 408.
Towns, their effects on population, 349.
Trammel-nets recommended for the cod-fishery, 62.
Trincomalee harbour described, 115.
Tulipa Celsiana, description of, 512.
Tweeddale, county of, agriculture of, 66.
Tytler, Mr. on the life of Petrarch, 296.

V & U

Van Diemen's land proved to consist of a groupe of islands, 6.
Vegetables, astringent, experiments on their constituent parts, 408.
Verses to *a friend remonstrating*, and to *a lady singing*, 160.
Vilette, M. de, anecdotes of, 477.
Voyages, a method of classing them proposed by Captain Burney, 415.

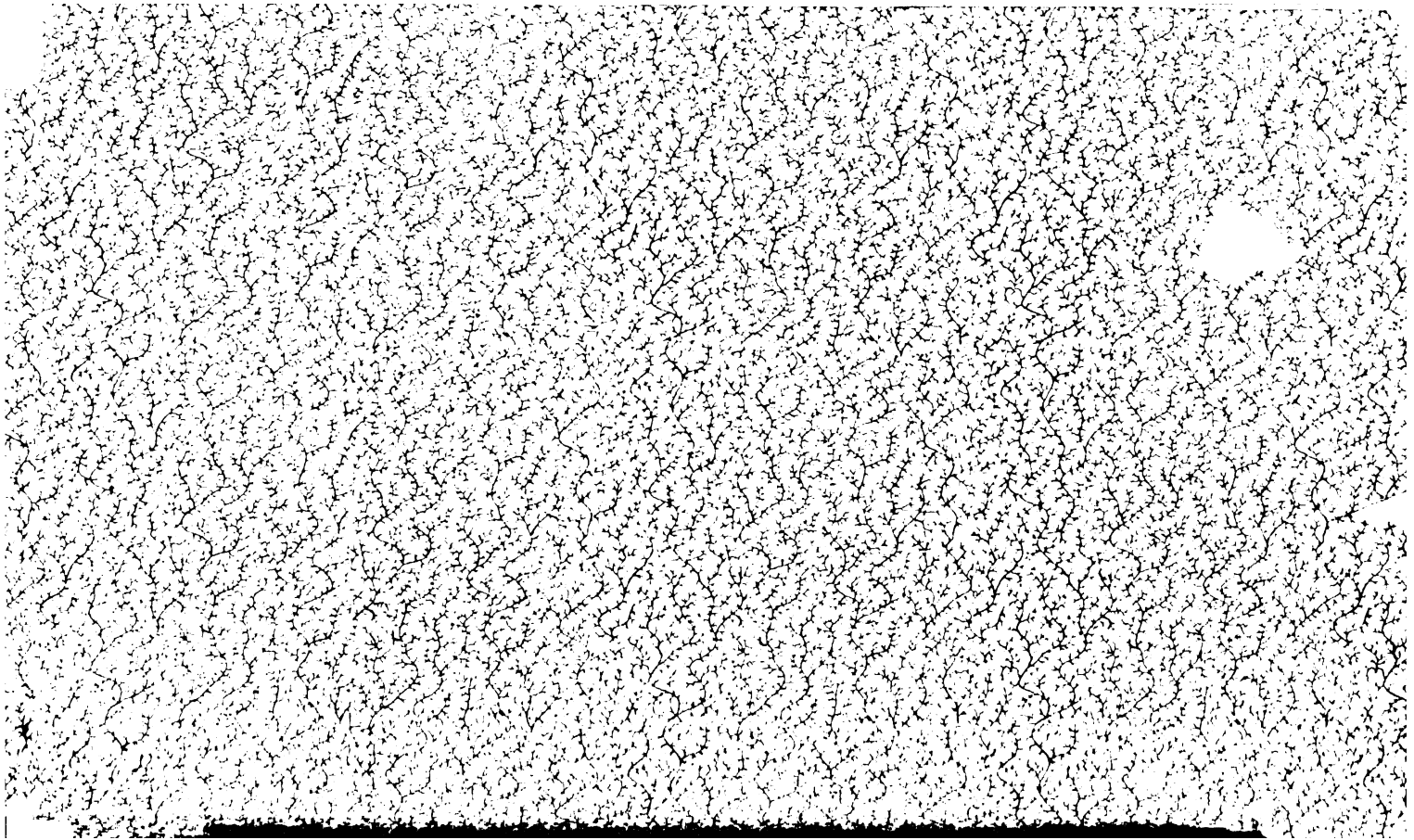
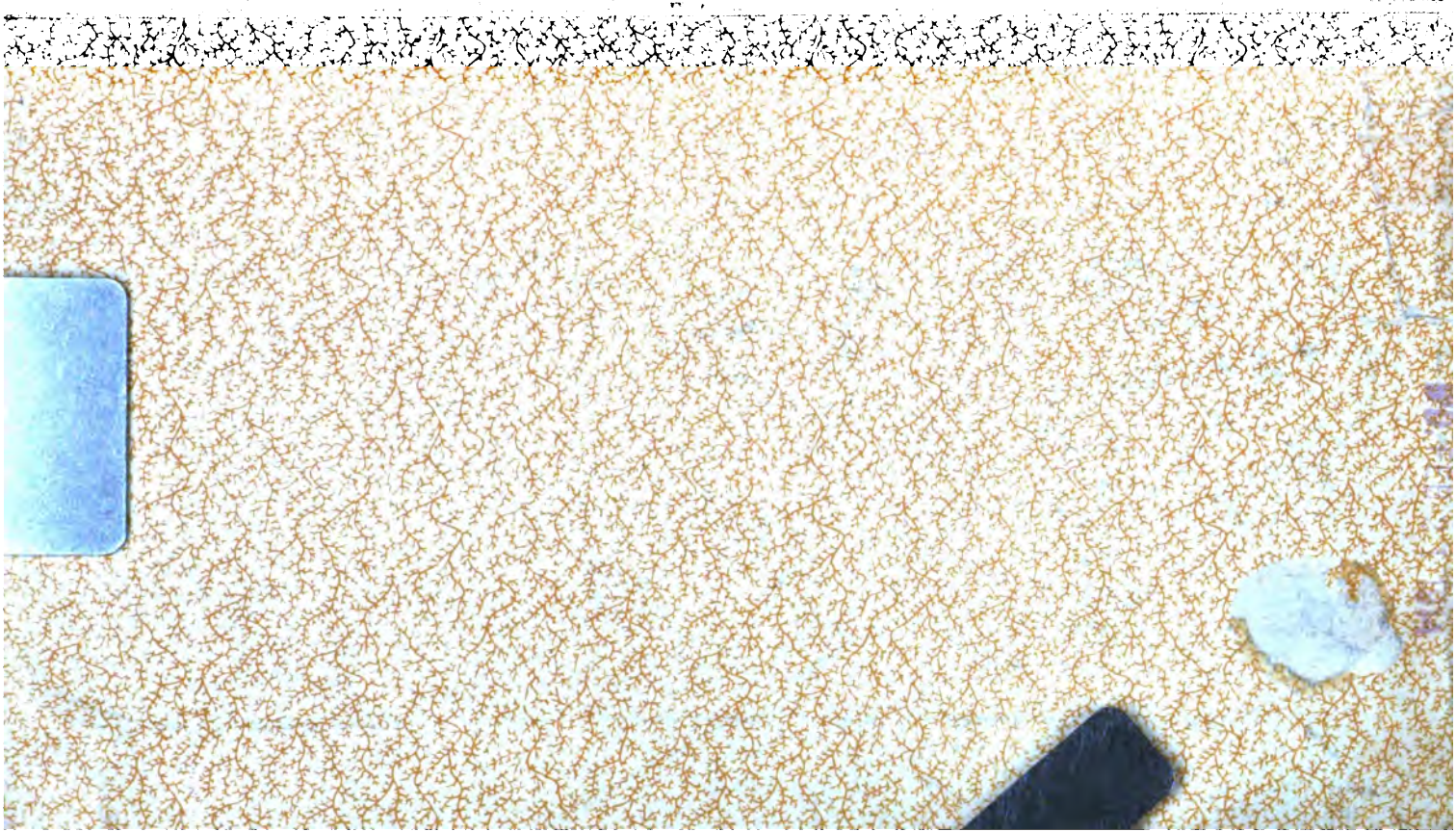
W

Wales, New South, circumstances likely to retard the progress of the settlement there, 2, 3. Barbarity of the natives, 6, 7.
Wallace, Mr. on the algebraic formula $(a^2+b^2-2\,ab\cos.\varphi)^n$, 302.
War, animated apostrophe on the system of, 174.
Water, the want of, and of rain, in Egypt, misrepresented, 195.
Westminster Abbey, some account of, by a French nobleman, 478.
Wig, old, sonnet to, 221.
Wollaston, Dr. on horizontal refraction, 394.
Wom-bat, an animal found in Cape Barren island, in New South Wales, described, 10.

Women and Men, the question of superiority between them discussed, and shewn to be nugatory, 484—485. State of women in Greece, 485. At Rome, 486. Everlastingly enslaved by the policy of Mahomet, *ib.* Their brilliant appearance during the splendid reign of Louis XIV. of France, 489.

Z

Zeolite, uncommon species of, analyzed, 299.
Zuric, siege of, and deliverance, 460.

END OF VOL. XLII. OF THE NEW SERIES.

Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.